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ABSTRACT

This bulletin is the Office of Education's first one on education in Rumania, and the subject is presented in its historical and current political, economic, social, and cultural setting, from a non-communistic perspective. Nine chapters present the country's background, a history of its educational system from 1832, and detailed descriptions of: preprimary education, general education, vocational and technical education, higher education, teacher training, and organizations for children, youth, and adults. A final chapter presents the author's conclusions and evaluations. Appendices cover general education textbooks and a glossary of Rumanian terms used in the bulletin. Both the text and appendices are illustrated with charts and statistical tables. (Author/DJB)

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OE-14087

EDUCATION
in the
Rumanian People's Republic

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF
HEALTH, EDUCATION, AND WELFARE
Office of Education

Highlights

★ Education at all levels has been free in Rumania since September 1961, when tuition and examination fees were eliminated.

★ Beginning in 1958–59, a 7-year, universal, and compulsory system of general education was gradually introduced; and beginning in 1961–62, an 8-year system of this kind, to be gradually achieved as the first phase of a 12-year system.

★ The educational system is gradually being transformed along polytechnical lines, giving high priority to agricultural and industrial requirements.

★ Enrollments between 1938–39 and 1959–60 increased as shown below:

	1938–39	*1959–60*
Preschool education	90, 787	315, 998
Schools of general education	1, 604, 481	2, 338, 447
Vocational education for apprentices	39, 250	102, 012
Higher education	26, 489	61, 980

★ Territorial acquisitions after World War I gave the country an ethnically heterogeneous population of around 15 nationalities, for whom education, national in form and socialist in content, has been supplied in their native tongues to varying degrees.

★ The Ministry of Education, which is responsible for implementing governmental educational policies, organizes, guides, and supervises education at all levels.

★ The Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party directly or indirectly formulates general policies covering the structure and content of education.

★ Higher education, comprising three universities and a considerable number of specialized institutions, has annual quotas for each institution and each field of study, set up by the Party and the appropriate governmental organs and geared to immediate man-power needs and long-range economic objectives.

★ Organizations for children, youths, and adults carry on extracurricular cultural and vocational activities and implement the formal programs of political and ideological indoctrination.

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EDUCATION in the Rumanian People's Republic

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U. S. DEPARTMENT OF
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Foreword

THIS STUDY is the latest addition to a series of bulletins on education in foreign countries published by the U.S. Office of Education. The series is intended to fill multiple and increasing needs, both within and outside the Government; specifically, to provide assistance for registrars and admissions officers in their placement of foreign students, comprehensive data on foreign systems of education for comparative education and area specialists and scholars, and general information for a variety of individuals, groups, and programs.

The Office has published bulletins on education in Eastern Europe for Czechoslovakia (1935), Poland (1936), Yugoslavia (1939), USSR (1957, 1959, and 1960), and the Soviet Zone of Germany (1959). The present bulletin is the Office of Education's first one on education in Rumania, and the subject is presented in its historical and current political, economic, social, and cultural setting.

The author has brought to the study painstaking scholarship and research in primary sources, including official documents; fluency in the Rumanian language; and a personal knowledge of the country before its conversion to a Communist state. He has used the most recent available sources, many of them in collections of the Library of Congress and the Office of Education. Some of the latter were acquired by the Office's Bureau of International Education through an informal exchange of publications with the Rumanian Ministry of Education. Others, comprising a set of Rumanian textbooks, were presented to the Bureau by the Ministry in 1960.

For their interest and help in the present endeavor the Office and the author wish to thank the following: George Z. E. Bereday of Teachers College, Columbia University; William K. Medlin of the University of Michigan; Virgiliu Stoicoiu of the European Law Division, Library of Congress; and Stanley Zukowski of the U.S. Joint Publications Research Service.

OLIVER J. CALDWELL
Acting Associate Commissioner
for International Education

FREDRIKA M. TANDLER
Director, International
Studies and Services

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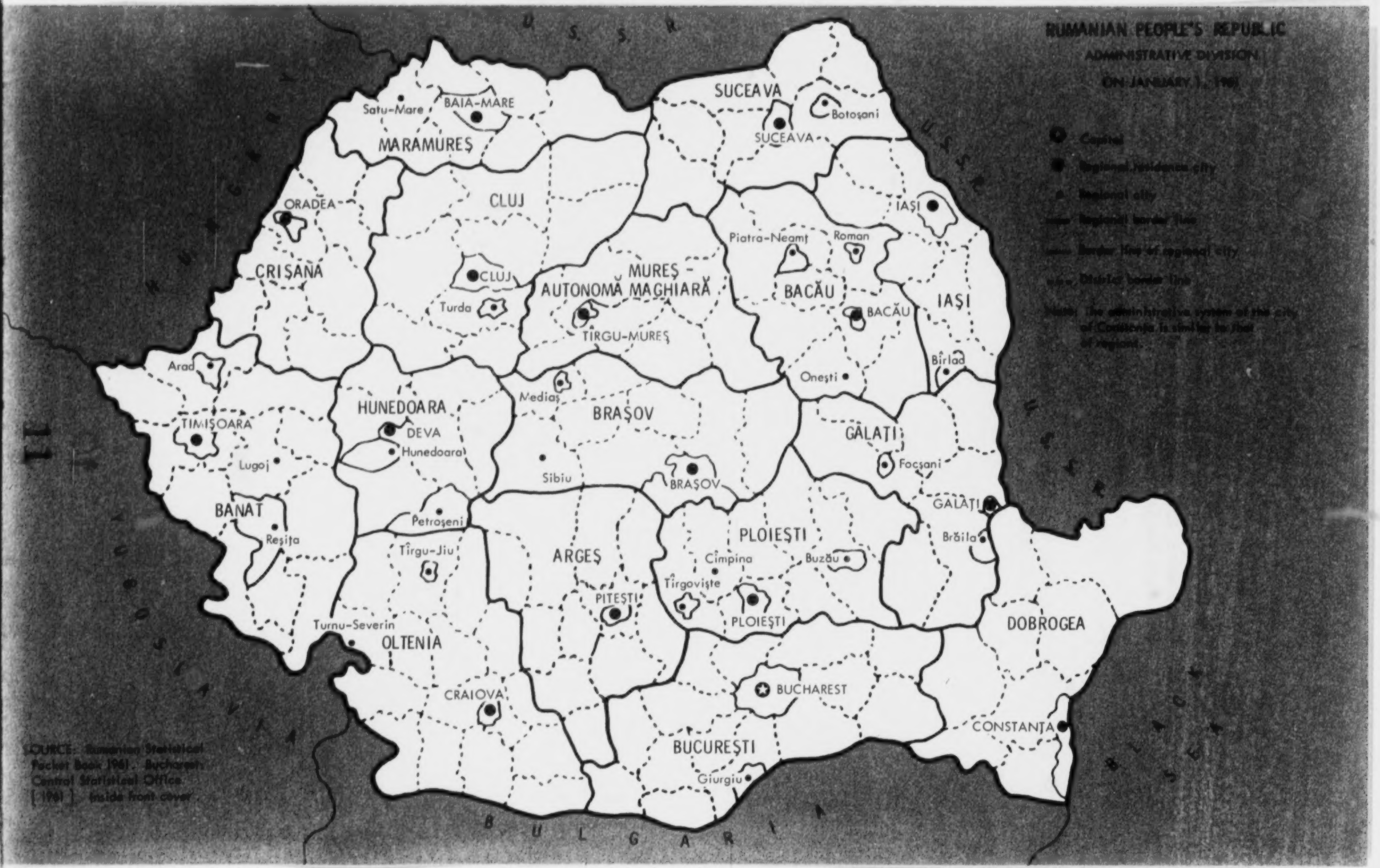
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YUGOSLAVIA
BULGARIA
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Botoşani
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Turda
CRIŞANA
ORADEA
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Roman
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Oneşti
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TIMIŞOARA
Lugoj
HUNEDOARA
DEVA
Hunedoara
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Sibiu
GALAŢI
Focşani
Brăila
BANAT
Reşiţa
Petroşeni
Tîrgu-Jiu
ARGEŞ
PITEŞTI
PLOIEŞTI
Cîmpina
Tîrgovişte
Buzău
DOBROGEA
CONSTANŢA
Turnu-Severin
OLTENIA
CRAIOVA
BUCHAREST
BUCUREŞTI
Giurgiu
Capital
Regional residence city
Regional city
Regional border line
Border line of regional city
District border line

RUMANIAN PEOPLE'S REPUBLIC
ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION
ON JANUARY 1, 1961

Note: The administrative system of the city of Constanţa is similar to that of regions.

SOURCE: Rumanian Statistical Pocket Book 1961. Bucharest: Central Statistical Office [1961], inside front cover.

Chapter I

The Country's Background

Geography

LOCATED between the Pruth River and the Black Sea to the east, near the Tisa River to the west, and between the Vişeu Valley and the Danube River to the north and south, the Rumanian People's Republic encompasses a territory of nearly 92,000 square miles.

The land is a rich, variegated, and well-watered area extending between the 43d and 48th parallels, with a number of snow-covered high mountain ranges encircling the Transylvanian Plateau and with many fertile valleys and plains. Its continental climate of hot summers and cold winters is particularly favorable for the cultivation of grain and other agricultural crops. The country's natural resources, especially its forests and petroleum, natural gas, and iron ore, provide an adequate base for industrialization and economic development.

History

Early Period

Rumanian history is traced back to the occupation of Dacia by Roman legions under Trajan in the years 101 and 106 A.D. Menaced by a Gothic invasion, the Romans withdrew from Dacia in 271, leaving behind a mixed population of Daco-Romans, or Rumanians, who spoke a Latin tongue which had replaced the original Thracian spoken in the area. During the barbarian invasions of the post-Roman period, the descendants of the Romanized Dacians stayed in the mountains, seeping throughout the subsequent centuries into the plains east and south of the Carpathians.

The Principalities

The first Rumanian principalities—Wallachia (Muntenia) and Moldavia (Moldova)—were established during the 13th and 14th centuries, respectively. The constant power struggle between the princes and the landed magnates (*boyars*), who were often assisted by the Church, made the political foundation of these principalities very unstable. Exploiting the instability, the Turks established their suzerainty over the principalities during the 15th and 16th centuries largely by aligning themselves with the *boyars*, who in turn were eager to ensure succession to the Wallachian and Moldavian thrones by members of their families. Although Turkish domination was occasionally challenged by popular princes such as Michael the Brave (Mihaiu Viteazul) of Wallachia (1593–1601) and Peter Rares (Petru Rareş) of Moldavia (1527–46), it managed continuously to reassert itself.

In 1711, when the indigenous princes and *boyars* became unreliable from the Turkish point of view, the thrones were sold to the economically more prosperous Phanariots (Greek merchants in Constantinople). During the Phanariot period (1711–1821) Greek influence dominated the principalities' political, economic, religious, and cultural life; but the corruption and exploitation of that period evoked a national consciousness among the oppressed Rumanians. Fostered by the ideas of the French enlightenment, this consciousness received the overt encouragement of Russia. After the 1821 revolution, led by Tudor Vladimirescu and followed by restoration of the Rumanian princes, Russian influence became increasingly strong. The Treaty of Adrianople ending the Russo-Turkish War of 1826–28 transformed the principalities into Russian protectorates. Under General Kisseleff's enlightened rule, the 1828–34 Russian occupation brought about the establishment of the first Rumanian constitutional assemblies, the Divans. Together with many other reforms, these assemblies laid the foundations of the modern Rumanian State.

National unification was achieved in the wake of the Crimean War (Congress of Paris, 1856), when the constituent assemblies of Wallachia and Moldavia adopted a joint program and in 1859 elected Colonel Alexandru Ion Cuza as ruler of both. Siding with Russia in the Russo-Turkish War of 1877–78, Rumania achieved two objectives: attainment of national independence (May 10, 1877) and establishment of a monarchical form of government (1881) under King Carol I of the Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen family (1866–1914).

Period Between World Wars I and II

As a result of her participation in the Second Balkan War (June 1913) against Bulgaria and in World War I against the Central Powers, Rumania increased both her territory and her population through acquiring Transylvania and the Banat from Hungary, Bukovina from Austria, Bessarabia from Russia, and Dobrudja (Dobrogea) from Bulgaria.[1] After a relatively short period of political stability and democratic progress under Kings Ferdinand and Michael (Mihai) I, in the 1920's, Rumania gradually shifted toward authoritarianism in the 1930's. King Carol II, who had returned in June 1930 from a self-imposed exile, attemped at first to act vigorously against ultra-rightist groups such as the Iron Guard (*Garda de Fier*). But the lack of a long democratic tradition, the weakness of the political party system, and the ineffectiveness of the Government led to the establishment in April 1938 of a royal dictatorship, which severely curtailed the basic liberties of the people. In foreign affairs, the Munich Agreement of September 1938 and the subsequent disintegration of the Little Entente brought about a rapid shifting of Rumania's policy from one geared to France to one closely linked with that of the Axis Powers.

World War II

The collapse of France in May 1940 and the Soviet ultimatum (which led to the surrender of northern Bukovina and Bessarabia one month later) induced Rumania to join the Nazi-imposed "New Order" in Europe. Following the loss of northern Transylvania to Hungary and of southern Dobrudja (Dobrogea) to Bulgaria in the summer of 1940, King Carol II was forced to abdicate in favor of his son Michael (Mihai) I in September of that year. At the same time Marshal Ion Antonescu, one of the leaders of the rightist officers' corps, proclaimed himself *conducător* (Fuehrer) transforming Rumania into a national-legionnaire state. On June 22, 1941, Rumania joined Hitler's Germany in its attack against the Soviet Union. After the Stalingrad debacle, however, in which a large part of the Rumanian Army was destroyed, the leaders of the anti-Nazi parties, cooperating with the monarch, contacted the Western Powers for purposes of extricating Rumania from the war against the Grand Alliance—an act achieved on August 23, 1944. A new Government of national unity was established under General Sănătescu. Under the armistice agreement signed on September 12, 1944, this new Government decreed that Rumania should continue in the war—but on the opposite side, fighting with Soviet troops against Germany and Hungary.

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[1] Through the Treaties of Trianon, St. Germain, Paris, and Neuilly, respectively.

Communist Acquisition of Power

The Communist drive for political power began soon after the armistice agreement had been signed. Following a pattern tailored with minor variations to fit local conditions in most eastern European countries, the Rumanian Communist Party emerged victorious for reasons transcending internal Rumanian affairs. Although weak in terms of number and influence, the Party had the advantage of the Red Army's presence in the country. The Soviet occupation authorities openly encouraged and supported the Rumanian Communists in their demand for a "friendly and truly democratic government." The one force which could have offered some, if temporary, resistance—the traditionally conservative Rumanian Army—was absent from the country fighting with the Red Army in Hungary and Czechoslovakia. The preservation of internal order was entrusted to two Communist-indoctrinated Rumanian divisions—the "Tudor Vladimirescu" and the "Horia, Cloşca şi Crişan"—recruited among the Rumanian prisoners of war in the USSR.

Following a series of governmental crises and open interference by the Soviet Union in the person of Andrei Vishinsky, then Foreign Minister of the USSR, King Michael I, acting under the pressure of an ultimatum, announced the formation of the Petru Groza Government on March 6, 1945. Although the formal multiparty coalition system was maintained and the external forms of parliamentary democracy continued to be preserved, actual control fell into the hands of the Communists, who gradually transformed themselves from a ruling minority into a dominating "majority." In appearance they continued to press only for the achievement of traditionally democratic aims, but in reality they were laying the foundations for a "people's democratic" (Communist) system. This they finally achieved at the beginning of January 1948, following the forced abdication of the monarch on December 30, 1947. After eliminating all opposition and consolidating the People's Democratic State, the Communists began systematically to transform Rumania's economic, social, and cultural life along "socialist" lines.[2]

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[2] For further details on Rumania's historical-political development see part I of the bibliography.

People

According to the census of February 21, 1956, Rumania at that time had a population of 17,489,450. This was an increase of 1,616,826 over the figures revealed by the census of January 25, 1948. On July 1, 1959 the country's population was estimated at 18,250,000.[3] Although the pace of industrialization and urbanization has increased since the people's democracy was inaugurated in 1948, the country is still predominantly agricultural and rural. In 1956, its rural population was 12,015,186, or 68.7 percent of the total. This was almost the same as what it had been in 1948: 12,159,485. By contrast, the 1956 urban population had increased from 3,713,139 to 5,474,264, or from 23.4 percent to 31.3 percent of the total.[4]

Owing to Rumania's territorial acquisitions after World War II, the population is ethnically heterogeneous to a considerable degree. Of the 15 nationalities residing in the country in 1956, Rumanians constituted almost 15 million, Hungarians 1,600,000, Germans 385,000, Jews 146,000, and gypsies 104,000. None of the other nationalities in Rumania numbered more than 65,000.[5]

In terms of religious affiliation, the population reflects to some extent its ethnic composition. Before the people's democratic State was established early in 1948, there were 12 legally recognized religious faiths. By far the most influential at that time was the Rumanian Orthodox Church.[6] In 1955 it had an estimated membership of 13,700,000, or 79.1 percent of the total population. Recognized between World Wars I and II as the "dominant church in Rumania," it was followed in terms of size (1955) by the Catholic Uniate Church (1,400,000), Roman Catholic (1,000,000), Calvinist (575,000), Lutheran (250,000), Jewish (175,000), and Unitarian (70,000). The membership of the Roman Catholic and Calvinist churches was composed almost entirely of Hungarians, and that of the Lutheran Church of Germans.

The churches operate under a decree dated August 4, 1948; and although freedom of religion is thus formally recognized, it is primarily construed as freedom for antireligious activities. The loyalty of the churches to the State is to some extent assured by the fact that their spiritual leaders are selected and supported largely on the basis of their cooperation with the State.[7]

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[3] *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 69.

[4] The increase in urban figures may be due partly to a change in the criteria being used to report the population. The 1956 urban figures include inhabitants of cities and of "183 localities which during the people's democratic era attained the social and economic characteristics of urban centers." *Recensămîntul populaţiei din 21 Februarie 1956* (The Census of February 21, 1956). Bucharest; Direcţia centrală de statistică [1956]. p. X.

[5] See table 15.

[6] It still has more influence than any other church in Rumania.

[7] *Romania.* Stephen Fischer-Galati, *ed.* New York: Frederick A. Praeger, 1957. p. 132–47.

Government

As a result of territorial reorganization occurring in December 1960, Rumania was divided into 16 economic-administrative regions: Argeş, Bacău, Banat, Braşov, Bucharest, Cluj, Crişana, Dobrogea, Galaţi, Hunedoara, Iaşi, Maramureş, Mureş-Magyar Autonomous, Oltenia, Ploieşti, and Suceava (see map). These regions in turn were subdivided into 146 rural and 8 urban districts (*raions*). They contain 39 regional cities, 140 district (*raional*) cities, and 4,920 communes or villages. To a certain extent the cities of Bucharest and Constanţa have the administrative autonomy of regions.[8]

Supreme power in Rumania is theoretically vested in the unicameral Grand National Assembly. Voting by election districts, citizens "elect" one deputy for every 40,000 inhabitants to serve a 4-year term. The Assembly is rarely convened, and its primary function is to rubber-stamp the decisions taken between its sessions. During this inter-Assembly period, State affairs are taken care of by the Council of State (known as the Presidium until March 1961), composed of a president, who is also the titular head of the Republic, 3 vice presidents, and 13 others.

Executive and administrative power is formally vested in the Council of Ministers, consisting of a president, a first vice president, several (usually 5) vice presidents, the president of the State Planning Committee, and 15 others. The local organs of State power in regions, districts (*raions*), cities, and rural localities are the people's councils (soviets). The executive and administrative organs of these councils are the executive committees, which in turn operate through various sections (education, land, housing, etc.). The sections function on the principle of pyramidal responsibility, each one subordinate to its particular people's council and executive committee, as well as to the corresponding section of the executive committee of the people's council directly above and to the appropriate ministry.

Although the various governmental organs have implementation powers, ultimate responsibility for policy determination and supervision rests with the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party. The Party constitutes the "core of State power," a fact that is reflected at many points, among them the merger of the top leadership of the Party and the Government.

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[8] Vasile Cucu. "Îmbunătăţirea împărţirii administrativ-economice a teritoriului Republicii Populare Romîne" (Improving the Administrative–Economic Division of the Territory of the Rumanian People's Republic). *Probleme de Geografie* (Problems of Geography), Bucharest, VIII:29–37, 1961.

Table 1.—Population of Rumania, by age, sex, and urban or rural area: Census of February 21, 1956[1]

Age	Total			Urban			Rural		
	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total	Male	Female
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Total	17,489,450	8,503,420	8,986,030	5,474,264	2,683,738	2,790,526	12,015,186	5,819,682	6,195,504
0–4	1,848,812	944,338	904,474	483,068	247,037	236,031	1,365,744	697,301	668,443
5–9	1,634,885	831,840	803,045	393,867	199,368	194,499	1,241,018	632,472	608,546
10–14	1,329,917	675,183	654,734	355,100	180,007	175,093	974,817	495,176	479,641
15–19	1,582,215	782,125	800,090	519,161	270,885	248,276	1,063,054	511,240	551,814
20–24	1,595,379	805,084	790,295	543,349	286,634	256,715	1,052,030	518,450	533,580
25–29	1,560,772	785,523	775,249	548,504	279,450	269,054	1,012,268	506,073	506,195
30–34	1,374,768	660,178	714,590	486,529	230,158	256,371	888,239	430,020	458,219
35–39	856,488	389,721	466,767	314,960	143,634	171,326	451,528	246,087	295,441
40–44	1,130,498	524,938	605,560	401,764	194,844	207,420	728,734	330,594	398,140
45–49	1,110,829	543,187	567,642	373,717	186,611	187,106	737,112	356,576	380,536
50–54	928,660	458,910	469,750	298,062	145,619	152,443	630,598	313,291	317,307
55–59	800,037	373,984	426,053	249,685	114,979	134,706	550,352	259,005	291,347
60–64	620,898	268,861	352,037	183,978	78,830	105,148	436,920	190,031	246,889
65–69	480,119	201,911	278,208	138,428	56,751	81,677	341,691	145,160	196,531
70–74	346,771	145,175	201,596	97,202	38,555	58,647	249,569	106,620	142,949
75–79	180,989	71,461	109,528	53,373	19,305	34,068	127,616	52,156	75,460
80–84	72,140	28,348	43,792	22,314	7,834	14,480	49,826	20,514	29,312
85–89	25,186	9,176	16,010	7,915	2,578	5,337	17,271	6,598	10,673
90–94	6,212	1,963	4,249	1,888	513	1,375	4,324	1,450	2,874
95–99	1,913	486	1,427	453	112	341	1,460	374	1,086
100 and over	487	103	384	102	22	80	385	81	304
Not stated	1,475	925	550	845	512	333	630	413	217

SOURCE OF DATA: The figures are derived from table 14 of the *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R., 1960* (Statistical Yearbook of the Rumanian People's Republic, 1960). Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 74–81.

[1] See also table 15.

Chapter II

The Educational System

Public Education: 1832–1948

ALTHOUGH THE first educational institutions of Rumania were established during the early part of the 16th century[1], the system of public education was introduced only in 1832, when the Organic Regulation (*Regulament organic*), the country's first "constitution," was adopted under the guidance of Count Kisseleff, the Russian protector of the Rumanian principalities of Wallachia and Moldavia. Though rudimentary in scope, the newly introduced system of public education gradually reshaped the functions of the schools by transforming them from ecclesiastical institutions designed primarily to train students for the clergy and other professions reserved to members of the upper classes, into State-supported institutions offering secular education. The number of State-supported schools, however, continued to be low.[2] The children of the well-to-do and of the resident minorities continued to attend almost exclusively the private schools operated by religious denominations.

The unification of the principalities in 1859 under Prince Alexandru Ion Cuza opened the way for reforms. A sweeping education law was adopted in 1864 stipulating the principle of free and compulsory education under State supervision "where schools were available." Though the law provided for the establishment of schools by districts and cities, its practical application revealed a series of shortcomings. The legal provisions notwithstanding, the number of schools remained small and the enrollment negligible. Real progress was achieved only during the closing years of the 19th century under the inspired leadership of Spiru Haret, the "Rumanian Horace Mann." First as Secretary General of the Ministry of Education and Cults and then as Minister, he was primarily responsible for the complete reorganization of the country's educational system. In 1893, the structure and functions of the elementary and normal schools were revised, as were those of the secondary schools and the institutions of higher learning 5 years later. The vocational schools were reorganized under the School Law of 1899.

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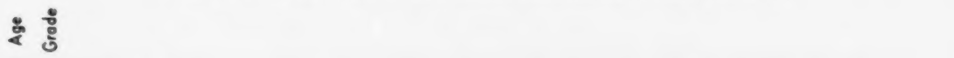
[1] The first schools were established at Cotnari and Rădăceni, both in Moldavia. In the 17th century the "School of Trei Erarchi" was founded near Jassy (Iaşi), as well as a school at Sfântu Sava. Agitation for introducing a public school system in the principalities and for replacing Slav and Greek with Rumanian as the major language of instruction reached its height during the first part of the 19th century. The most eloquent spokesman for these aspirations in Wallachia (Muntenia) was Gheorghe Lazăr; and in Moldavia, Gheorghe Assachi.

For a detailed history of Rumanian education during the formative years consult Nicolae Iorga's *Histoire de l' enseignement en pays roumain* (History of Education in Rumanian Lands). Bucharest: Edition de la caisse des écoles, 1933. See also Gaston Richard's "L'éducation nationale dans l'état roumain contemporain: Ses conditions ethniques et sociales" (National Education in the Contemporary Rumanian State: Its Ethnic and Social Conditions), *Revue Internationale de Sociologie* (International Review of Sociology), Paris, 42:I–II:29–53, January–February 1934.

[2] Between 1832 and 1864 only 288 grammar schools — many of them 1-room schools — were established in Wallachia. In Moldavia, only 55 schools had been established by 1859. Joseph S. Roucek. *Contemporary Roumania and Her Problems.* Stanford, Calif.: Stanford University Press, 1932. p. 373–74.

Rumania's World War I territorial acquisitions tripled its population. The school system was then revised again. The revision involved first of all a reorientation of the country's educational system from one modeled on the German system to one more closely patterned after that of France.

Chart 1.—The Rumanian Educational System: 1928–47



SOURCE: Sasnett, Martena Tenny. *Educational Systems of the World: Interpretations for Use in Evaluation of Foreign Credentials.* Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1952. p. 602.

Although the Rumanian educational system developed by Spiru Haret underwent a series of organizational changes during the period between World Wars I and II,[3] its structure, functions, and aims remained essentially unchanged until 1948. Structurally, the educational system before 1948 is reflected in chart 1. It consisted of (1) kindergartens, (2) elementary schools, (3) secondary schools, (4) vocational schools, and (5) institutions of higher learning.

Kindergartens

Theoretically, preprimary education for children between the ages of 5 and 7, constituting the first phase of the elementary school system, was compulsory. However, during 1929–38, for example, only 13.3 percent of all children between the ages of 5 and 7 attended public kindergartens and fewer than 1.5 percent the private kindergartens.[4]

Elementary Schools

Again theoretically, the 7-year elementary school was compulsory for children between the ages of 7 and 14. This system included two types of schools: 4-year primary schools (grades 1–4) for children expecting to continue their studies in secondary schools, and 7-year elementary schools for those wishing to finish their education at age 14. The compulsory character of the elementary school program was not always enforced. During the 10 years from 1929 to 1938, only 5.4 percent of all children continued their schooling beyond the fourth grade. Moreover, less than 1 percent of the farm youth completed more than 4 years of general education—and farmers constituted almost four-fifths of the total Rumanian population during this period.[5]

Secondary Schools

The secondary school system proper included the gymnasia (*gimnazii*) and the lycea (*licee*). One may also include in this group the teacher-training or normal schools (*şcoli pedagogice* or *şcoli normale*), the theological seminaries (*seminarii teologice*), and the vocational secondary schools (*şcoli secundare profesionale*). The courses of study lasted 7 years except at the theological seminaries, where they lasted between 6 and 8 years. The gymnasia included the first 3 years of secondary education and were preparatory for the lycea or professional schools. There were three types of gymnasia: schools exclusively for boys (*gimnazii de băeţi*) schools exclusively for girls (*gimnazii de fete*), and coeducational schools (*gimnazii mixte*). The lycea included either the last 4 years of secondary education or the combined intermediate-secondary cycles of secondary education (i.e., 4-year lycea based on 7 or 8 years of primary schooling) or 7-year lycea based on 4 years of primary schooling. Some of the lycea were coeducational and others were exclusively for boys or girls.

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[3] For example, the system of private education was reorganized by virtue of a law dated Dec. 22, 1925. The general public secondary schools were reorganized in 1928 and the parochial secondary schools in 1929. On April 16, 1926, the vocational secondary schools for boys and girls were reorganized, as were the classical secondary schools on Nov. 29, 1939. The business secondary schools were reorganized in 1938 and the institutions of higher learning on May 23, 1942. For further details see bibliography, items under the "Prewar System."

[4] Herta Haase *and* Seymour M. Rosen. *Education in Rumania (Rumanian People's Republic).* Washington: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, 1960. p. 2

[5] *Ibid.*

The secondary schools were open to graduates of the 4- or 7-year elementary schools. Graduates of the former were admitted to either the first grade of the gymnasium or the first grade of the 7-year secondary school.

The 1928-adopted curriculum of the secondary schools for boys is shown in table 2 and that of the secondary schools for girls in table 3.

Despite great efforts by governmental and school authorities, secondary school enrollment remained relatively low throughout the

Table 2.—Number of hours per week, per subject, in the secondary schools for boys, by grade: 1928

Grade	Number of hours per week in—[1]																				Extra-curricular activities	
	Religion	Rumanian	Latin	Greek	French	German or English	History	Geography	Philosophy or sociology	Law, political economy, civics	Mathematics	Physics or chemistry	Natural sciences	Hygiene	Music	Drawing	Calligraphy	Gymnastics	Moral education	Total	*Summer* Sports	*Winter* Handicrafts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
Total	13	24	14	2	17	9	14	12	4	3	19	12	11	2	9	7	2	14	7		14	7
1	2	5	0	0	3	0	2	2	0	0	3	0	2	0	2	1	1	2	1	26	2	1
2	2	4	0	0	3	0	2	2	0	0	3	2	2	0	2	1	1	2	1	27	2	1
3	2	3	2	0	3	0	2	2	0	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	27	2	1
4	2	3	3	0	2	3	2	2	0	0	3	3	0	0	1	1	0	2	1	28	2	1
5	2	3	3	0	2	2	2	2	0	0	3	3	2	0	1	1	0	2	1	29	2	1
6	2	3	3	1	2	2	2	0	2	[2] 1	2	2	2	0	1	1	0	2	1	29	2	1
7	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	[3] 1	2	0	2	1	1	1	0	2	1	29	2	1

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerul Instrucţiunii. *Programele analitice ale învăţământului secundar (licee, gimnazii şi clasele I-III a şcoalelor normale) întocmite în conformitate cu legea învăţământului secundar din 1928* (Curricula of Secondary Education—Lycea, Gymnasia, and Grades I-III of the Normal Schools, Prepared in Accordance With the Secondary Education Law of 1928). Bucharest: Imprimeriile statului, 1929. p. 12, ("Curriculum of the secondary schools for boys").

[1] Schools having minority enrollment add 3 hours of the minority language per week.

[2] Constitutional and Administrative Law.

[3] Political Economy.

Table 3.—Number of hours per week, per subject, in the secondary schools for girls, by grade: 1928

Grade	Number of hours per week in—[1]																							
	Religion	Rumanian	Latin	Greek	French	German or English	History	Geography	Philosophy or sociology	Law, political economy, civics	Mathematics	Physics or chemistry	Natural sciences	Hygiene	Music	Drawing	Calligraphy	Gymnastics	Moral education	Total	Homemaking	Extra-curricular activities	
																						Summer Sports	*Winter* Handicrafts
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24
Total	13	24	14	2	17	9	14	12	4	3	19	12	11	2	9	7	2	14	7		7	14	10
1	2	5	0	0	3	0	2	2	0	0	3	0	2	0	2	1	1	2	1	26	1	2	2
2	2	4	0	0	3	0	2	2	0	0	3	2	2	0	2	1	1	2	1	27	1	2	2
3	2	3	2	0	3	0	2	2	0	1	3	2	1	1	1	1	0	2	1	27	1	2	2
4	2	3	3	0	2	3	2	2	0	0	3	3	0	0	1	1	0	2	1	28	1	2	1
5	2	3	3	0	2	2	2	2	0	0	3	3	2	0	1	1	0	2	1	29	1	2	1
6	2	3	3	1	2	2	2	0	2	[2] 1	2	2	2	0	1	1	0	2	1	29	1	2	1
7	1	3	3	1	2	2	2	2	2	[3] 1	2	0	2	1	1	1	0	2	1	29	1	2	1

SOURCE OF DATA: Ministerul Instrucţiunii. *Programele analitice ale învăţămîntului secundar (licee, gimnazii şi clasele I–III a şcoalelor normale) întocmite în conformitate cu legea învăţămîntului secundar din 1928* (Curricula of Secondary Education—Lycea, Gymnasia, and Grades I–III of the Normal Schools, Prepared in Accordance With the Secondary Education Law of 1928). Bucharest: Imprimeriile statului, 1929. p. 13, ("Curriculum of the secondary schools for girls").

[1] Schools having minority enrollment add 3 hours of the minority language per week.

[2] Constitutional and Administrative Law.

[3] Political Economy.

years between World Wars I and II. During the 1937–38 academic year, for example, enrollment in both public and private secondary schools—including the gymnasia, lycea, normal, business, vocational, and trade schools—was only 200,456. At the same time the primary school enrollment was almost 2.5 million.[6]

Vocational Schools

The system of vocational education was relatively poor. Practical training of apprentices was left to the master or employer, who often was more eager to exploit than to train them. There were only a few special schools for apprentices (*şcoli de ucenici*). Most of the theoretical preparation consisted of attendance at a few evening classes two or three times a week, with little or no differentiation among trades in the curricula and syllabi. These classes were offered either in the large shops or in the public schools.

Institutions of Higher Education

Before World War II, higher learning could be pursued in the institutions located at Bucharest, Iaşi, Cluj, Cernăuţi (Chernovtsy),

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[6] *Breviarul statistic al Romîniei 1939 (Statistical Brief of Rumania, 1939).* vol. II. Bucharest: Institutul central de statistică. p. 230–33.

Chişinău (Kishinev),[7] and Timişoara—or on other campuses of some of these institutions, for example on the campus at Oradea, where the University of Cluj had its School of Law. Courses were offered under 37 schools or faculties (*facultăţi*), concentrated at Bucharest, Cluj, and Iaşi. The programs required from 3 to 6 years for the basic degree (*licenţă*), and an additional 2 to 4 years of study and research for the doctorate. The number of students was relatively small. During the 1936–37 academic year, for example, only 34,093 were enrolled. Of these, 25,650 were men. By far the most popular fields of study during the years between World Wars I and II were law and letters and philosophy. Of the 34,093 students in 1936–37, 9,886 studied law and 4,516 letters and philosophy. Only 2,260 were registered in the polytechnical schools.[8]

The Reform of 1948

Rumania's new education system was introduced on August 3, 1948 as a result of Decree No. 175 of the Presidium of the Grand National Assembly.[9] Designed to achieve a highly centralized, uniform school system, the reform reoriented Rumania's basic educational policies away from French-German educational concepts towards those of Soviet Russia. This change was reflected in the gradual reorganization of the schools along Soviet lines, the adoption of Marxist-Leninist principles of education, and the coordination of educational policies with the basic requirements of the planned economy.

Policies and Principles

The constitutional provisions relating to Rumania's educational system were outlined in article 80 of the Constitution of September 24, 1952, which states:

> Every citizen has the right to education. This right is guaranteed through general, free, and compulsory primary education; through the system of State scholarships for deserving students and pupils in higher, secondary, and primary educational establishments; and through the organization in industrial firms, State enterprises, machine-and-tractor stations and collective farms of free vocational education for workers. Education at all levels is a responsibility of the State.[10]

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[7] Cernăuţi and Chişinău are in areas ceded to the USSR in June 1940. The present Russian names appear in the parentheses.

[8] *Breviarul statistic al României 1939, op. cit., p. 235.*

[9] For text of the decree see *Monitorul Oficial* (Official Gazette). Bucharest. Part I, No. 177, Aug. 3, 1948, p. 8322–24.

[10] For material on the discriminatory policies followed by the State against certain minority groups and children of "wrong" social and economic background, see p. 80ff. and p. 148ff.

The basic aims of the new educational system were stated in Decree No. 175 as intending to:

★eradicate illiteracy
★enlarge and bring about the democratization of basic education so as to include all school-age children and illiterates
★educate youth in the spirit of the people's democracy and raise the cultural level of the people
★guide the extracurricular activities of pupils . . .
★train the intermediate and higher cadres of specialists needed for consolidating the people's democracy and building the socialist society
★train the teachers needed in education
★train researchers and creative people in all fields of science and culture.[11]

The ultimate objective of this new education is the creation of the "new socialist man." Hence, the interests of the individual have had to be subordinated to the interests of the State as crystallized by policies of the Communist Party.[12] Education as such involves not only the transmitting of the knowledge and skills required to build the new society, but also the remolding of character in terms of values consonant with Communist ideology. To attain this dual goal of indoctrination and pragmatism, new principles have been adopted to underlie the new educational system. They stipulate that education be conducted on a "realist-scientific" basis divorced from all elements of "mysticism, obscurantism, and subjectivism;" that it be aimed to train youth in the spirit of "socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism;" and that educational policies be geared to the pressing needs of industry and agriculture in accordance with polytechnization principles.

Three far-reaching actions of the State have reflected the basic principles underlying Rumania's new educational system: curriculum revision, emphasizing science and Marxism-Leninism; school reorganization, stressing especially development of vocational and technical education; and the literacy campaign.

Campaign for Literacy

Before World War II Rumania had one of the highest illiteracy rates in Europe. In 1930, of a total population numbering more than 18 million, 38.2 percent could neither read nor write. In counties like Vlaşca and Maramureş, the percentage was 43 to 56.[13] To a large extent this high-illiteracy rate was due to the fact that school-age children either did not enroll in school or, if they were enrolled, did not attend. Furthermore, a relatively large percentage left school without completing their studies, while others, failing to be promoted, repeated the same grade for several years; still others, after having formally completed only the first four grades, relapsed into illiteracy.

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[11] *Op. cit.*, article II.

[12] For information on the role of the Communist Party in education, see p. 15ff.

[13] "The Liquidation of Illiteracy in the Rumanian People's Republic." *Fundamental and Adult Education*, X:4:146. Paris: UNESCO, 1958.

As a result of the 1945–48 literacy campaign, the number of illiterates among the population age 7 and over declined from over 4 million to 3,197,278, or 23.1 percent. Of this number, about 2,800,000 were in rural areas. The campaign assumed paramount importance after the nationalization and collectivization programs had been launched. Ever-increasing needs for skilled and semiskilled workers in field and factory prompted the Party and Government to reorganize the campaign on a more rational and institutionalized basis. Article XXV of the 1948 Educational Reform Act stipulated that literacy courses be organized for all illiterates between the ages of 14 and 55. These courses, lasting either one or two "school years" (October through March in the villages; October through April in the cities), were offered in three 2-hour sessions per week in the villages and in two 2-hour sessions in the cities. They were taught by both regular school teachers and literate volunteers. Organized under the auspices of the Ministry of Education and conducted under the overall control and guidance of the education sections of the people's councils,[14] the courses were the immediate responsibility of the Party-controlled social organizations.

The number of persons enrolled in literacy courses increased from year to year. According to official figures, 670,000 attended them during 1948–49. By 1949–50, 617,000 adults had completed the 2-year courses, which was deemed equivalent to graduation from the 4-year elementary school. Toward the end of 1958 the Rumanian authorities reported that illiteracy had been completely eliminated[15]—a claim that cannot be corroborated in terms of the level and degree of literacy achieved.

Organization and Administration

Role of the Communist Party

In the highly centralized political system of Rumania, ultimate control over every aspect of education is exercised by the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party. In fact, the primary function of the Ministry of Education is to implement the Government's educational policies as determined by Party directives.[16] It is the Party that directly or indirectly formulates the general policies covering both structure and content of education.

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[14] See p. 22ff.

[15] The Liquidation of Illiteracy in the Rumanian People's Republic, op. cit., p. 150–51.

Although school administrators and educators in general have some latitude in the *implementation* of educational policy, the *decision-making power* rests exclusively with the Party. The Party's policies are embodied in the directives and resolutions emanating from its Central Committee. Following their translation into legislative language, these are issued as decrees or decisions of the Council of Ministers. Such legislative enactments are often issued jointly in the names of the Council of Ministers and the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party. On the basis of these legislative enactments, the school system is operated through a governmental apparatus that extends downward from the Ministry of Education to the education sections of the regional, district (*raional*), and local people's councils.

In addition to formulating broad policy decisions, the Party also exercises day-to-day supervision over their implementation. At each organizational and administrative level and for each type of training there exists a Party base organ to ensure that the policies and directives of the Government are carried out. Strict adherence to the Party line in educational policies is also assured by the fact that politically influential educators hold leading Party positions and a large number of the members of committees or commissions concerned with various aspects of education or student-faculty life are also members of the Party and/or the UTM (Union of Working Youth). Such dual membership is exemplified by the makeup of the commissions on curricula and syllabi, the appointment and promotion bodies, the examination boards, and the scholarship-granting committees.

The formal organization and administration of Rumanian education as it existed between 1956 and 1961 is illustrated in chart 2.[17] At the top is the Ministry of Education.[18] In the case of schools of dual administration and control, however (i.e., those sponsored and supported by an economic ministry or a central governmental organization), the Ministry of Education operates in conjunction with the educational section of the appropriate ministry or organization.

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[16] Stipulated in article 1 of Decree No. 416, June 9, 1962, concerning the Ministry of Education. See Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1962, 1 Mai — 30 Iunie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1962. p. 65–68.

[17] In 1961 the educational system's structure was somewhat altered as a result of the planned introduction of the 8-year school system (see p. 42), the establishment of a number of advisory bodies (see p. 18ff), and the transfer of cultural affairs to the State Committee for Culture and Art (see p. 17).

[18] Since World War II the Ministry has undergone several organizational changes affecting its name. Throughout this publication the Ministry is referred to as the Ministry of Education (*Ministerul Învăţămîntului*) — the name agreed upon during the June 1962 reorganization.

Next in line are the education sections of the regional people's councils, guiding and controlling the activities of the education sections of the district (*raional*) people's councils.

Ministry of Education

Before 1953 a number of central governmental organs were concerned with various phases of education. A single Ministry of Education was not established until October 1953. It was formed through the amalgamation of the Ministry of Higher Education (*Ministerul învăţămîntului superior*), the Ministry of Public Education (*Ministerul învăţămîntului public*), and the General Directorate of Labor Reserves (*Direcţia generală a rezervelor de muncă*).[19] During the March 1957 governmental reorganization the Ministry of Education was amalgamated with the Ministry of Culture (*Ministerul culturii*) and called the Ministry of Education and Culture (*Ministerul învăţămîntului şi culturii*).

In June 1962, the Ministry was again divided into its two component elements: education proper was taken over by the Ministry of Education (*Ministerul învăţămîntului*) and cultural affairs by the State Committe for Culture and Art (*Comitetul de stat pentru cultură şi artă*).[20]

The Ministry of Education is responsible for implementing the educational policies of the Government as determined by the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party.[21] It organizes, guides, and supervises the entire educational process from the didactical, methodological and scientific points of view. For this purpose it cooperates with the other central organs of State administration and with the Academy of the Rumanian People's Republic.

Among other things, the Ministry has the following under its jurisdiction:

★universities and other institutions of higher learning
★teacher-training institutes
★university libraries

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[19] See Decree No. 452 in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1953, 1 Septembrie – 31 Octombrie* (Collection of Laws, Decrees, Decisions, and Orders, September 1 – October 31, 1953). Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1953. p. 69.

[20] Organized under the framework of the Council of Ministers, the State Committee for Culture and Art is primarily responsible for implementing the Party's policies on culture and art. The committee is led by an executive bureau composed of a president, several vice presidents, and other members — all appointed by the Council of Ministers. The committee is composed of the following councils: Council of Theatres (*Consiliul teatrelor*), Council of Music (*Consiliul muzicii*), Council of Plastic Arts (*Consiliul artelor plastice*), Council of Cultural Settlements (*Consiliul aşezămintelor culturale*), Council for the Propagation of Cultural–Scientific Knowledge (*Consiliul pentru răspîndirea cunoştinţelor cultural–ştiinţifice*), Council of Cinematography (*Consiliul cinematografiei*), and Council of Book Publishing and Distribution (*Consiliul editurilor şi al difuzării cărţii*). *Scînteia* (The Spark), Bucharest, June 6, 1962.

[21] See footnote 16 of this chapter.

★secondary, special, and experimental schools
★educational facilities
★educational enterprises
★research institutes.

In addition to guiding the educational entities listed above, the Ministry also guides the educational activities of schools and institutes that are subordinate to other ministries and central governmental organs.

Under the country's highly centralized system of education, the Ministry's functions are all-embracing: it works out in detail and determines the school plans, the network, and the character of schools and institutions of higher learning and the trades and specialties in the cadre-training program; it elaborates and approves educational curricula and syllabi, as well as textbook and teaching materials; it establishes the system for training, perfecting, appointing, and promoting the teaching and scientific staff and for granting higher degrees; it appoints, transfers, and dismisses the teaching, guidance, and administrative personnel; and it guides the formulation of scientific research plans of the institutions of higher learning, aiming to coordinate them with the requirements for development of the country's economy and culture.

In line with the June 1962 organizational changes, the structure of the Ministry of Education encompasses a number of general directorates, directorates, and offices; a bureau and an inspecting service; and three councils or advisory bodies. Specifically, these are the following:

General Directorates

General Directorate of the Schools of General Education (*Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului de cultură generală*)

General Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education (*Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului profesional şi tehnic*)

General Directorate of University Education (*Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului universitar*)

General Directorate of Higher, Technical, and Economic Education (*Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului superior, tehnic şi economic*)

General Directorate of Personnel and Teacher Upgrading (*Direcţia generală a personalului şi perfecţionării cadrelor din învăţămînt*).

Directorates

Directorate for Teaching Social Sciences (*Direcţia predării ştiinţelor sociale*)

Directorate for Planning and Labor Organization (*Direcţia planificării şi organizării muncii*)

Technical Directorate for Buildings and Investments (*Direcţia tehnică de construcţii şi investiţii*)

Directorate for Financial Planning and Accounting (*Direcţia plan financiar şi contabilitate*)

Directorate for Equipment and Supplies (*Direcţia dotării şi aprovizionării*)

Directorate for Foreign Relations (*Direcţia pentru relaţii externe*)

Administrative Directorate and Secretariat (*Direcţia secretariat-administrativă*).

Offices and Other Entities

Office for Internal Financial Control (*Oficiul de control financiar intern*)

Office for Studies and Documentation (*Oficiul pentru studii şi documentare*)

Legislative Office (*Oficiul juridic*)

Minister's Office of Control (*Corpul de control al ministrului*)

School Inspection (*Inspecţia şcolară*)

Bureau for Handling Reports and Claims (*Biroul pentru rezolvarea sezisărilor si reclamatiilor*)

Councils

Council for the Schools of General Education (*Consiliul învăţămîntului de cultură generală*)

Council for Vocational and Technical Education (*Consiliul învăţămîntului profesional şi tehnic*)

Council for Higher Education (*Consiliul învăţămîntului superior*).

The first of the three councils apparently replaces the Higher Council of Schools (*Consiliul superior al şcolilor*), established during academic year 1959–60; and the third apparently replaces the Higher Council of University and Polytechnical Education (*Consiliul superior al învăţămîntului universitar şi politehnic*).

Composed of faculty members, scientists, ministerial representatives, and experts in production, the Council for Higher Education examines the various problems confronting higher education and suggests measures for making organizational improvements, raising scientific, pedagogical, and methodological standards, and advancing polytechnization processes in the institutions of higher learning. Among the sections comprising the council are those concerned with organization and content of higher education, practical work in production, practice teaching, scientific activities, and methodological-pedagogical problems.[22]

Until its reorganization in 1962, the Ministry of Education had two functional departments: the Department of Schools (*Departa-*

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[22] The Ministry of Education and Culture of the Rumanian People's Republic. *Report on the Educational Movement in 1959–60 Submitted to the 23rd International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1960.* Bucharest: The Ministry, 1960. p. 22.

mentul şcolilor) and the Department of Higher Education (*Departamentul învăţămîntului superior*).

The Department of Schools had jurisdiction over the various directorates in the area of general, vocational, and technical education, including the General Directorate of the Education of Resident Nationalities (*Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului naţionalităţilor conlocuitoare*). Apparently the June 1962 reorganization decree eliminated this directorate.

The Department of Higher Education had jurisdiction over the General Directorate of Higher Education (*Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului superior*), which in turn guided and supervised the activities of the universities and other institutions of higher learning.

The High Commission on Diplomas (*Comisia superioară de diplome*) operates under the immediate jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education, but in close cooperation with the various directorates in higher education.[23]

Education Sections of the People's Councils

The education sections of the regional people's council (*Secţie învăţămînt al sfatului popular regional*) operate under the jurisdiction and guidance of the General Directorates of the Schools of General Education and of Vocational and Technical Education. The regional education sections supervise the education sections of the district (*raional*) people's councils (*Secţie învăţămînt al sfatului popular raional*), primarily in regard to implementation of the overall programs emanating from the Ministry. The regional education sections also appoint and dismiss the teaching and technical personnel of the secondary, teacher-training, and vocational schools[24] in their respective regions. The education sections of the district (*raional*) people's councils are responsible for the operation of the preprimary, elementary, secondary, teacher-training, and vocational schools.[25] Their jurisdiction also covers appointment and dismissal of the teaching and technical staffs of the preprimary and elementary schools.

In rank order, the education sections of the people's councils are staffed as follows:[26] (1) chief of education section (*Şef de secţie învăţămînt*), (2) chief of pedagogical council (*Şef de cabinet pedagogic*),

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[23] For details on the Commission see p. 155ff.

[24] In the area of vocational education the jurisdiction is shared with the education sections of the appropriate economic ministries.

[25] Jurisdiction over the preprimary and vocational schools is shared with the education sections of the appropriate economic ministries.

[26] See Decision No. 387 of March 27, 1956, in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1956, 1 Martie–30 Aprilie.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1956, p. 134–42.

(3) schools inspector (*Inspector şcolar*), (4) methodology expert (*Metodist*).

To be eligible for the first two positions a candidate must be a graduate of an institution of higher learning in possession of the State diploma, hold the rank of professor, and have 5 to 10 years "experience in education." The positions of school inspector and methodologist can be filled by graduates of 2-year teacher-training institutes with 3 to 5 years' experience in education.[27] Although the personnel of these sections operate under the overall guidance of the Ministry, immediate supervision is exercised by the executive committees (*comitetul executiv*) of the people's councils. In theory, the executive committees periodically evaluate the work of the educational sections, especially their guidance and supervision of the teachers' political activities.[28] A special school inspection service oversees the education sections of the regional and district people's councils and the schools under the councils' jurisdiction.

School Inspection Service

The school inspection service (*Serviciul inspecţiei şcolare*) is composed of three types of inspectors: (1) inspectors-general of the Ministry of Education, (2) regional inspectors, (3) district inspectors. There is one inspector-general for each of the 16 regions of the country. The number of regional and district inspectors varies according to the number of districts in each region and the number of schools in each district. A regional inspector is in charge of two or three districts, while a district inspector supervises 35 to 40 schools. As members of the school inspection service, they are primarily concerned with administrative and organizational problems: The level of teaching and the teaching techniques used in the various subjects are checked primarily by inspectors connected with the Scientific Methods Council (*Consiliul metodic ştiinţific*). The inspectors functioning within the various branches of education operate under the overall guidance of the appropriate General Directorates. Inspectors are appointed from among teachers who have completed a secondary school teacher training course or have graduated from an institution of higher learning and have demonstrated competence in both teaching and administration. Candidates for the position of inspector-general must have, over and above the other qualifications, at least 7 years of teaching experience; for the position of regional inspector, 5 years; and for that of district inspector, 3 years. The

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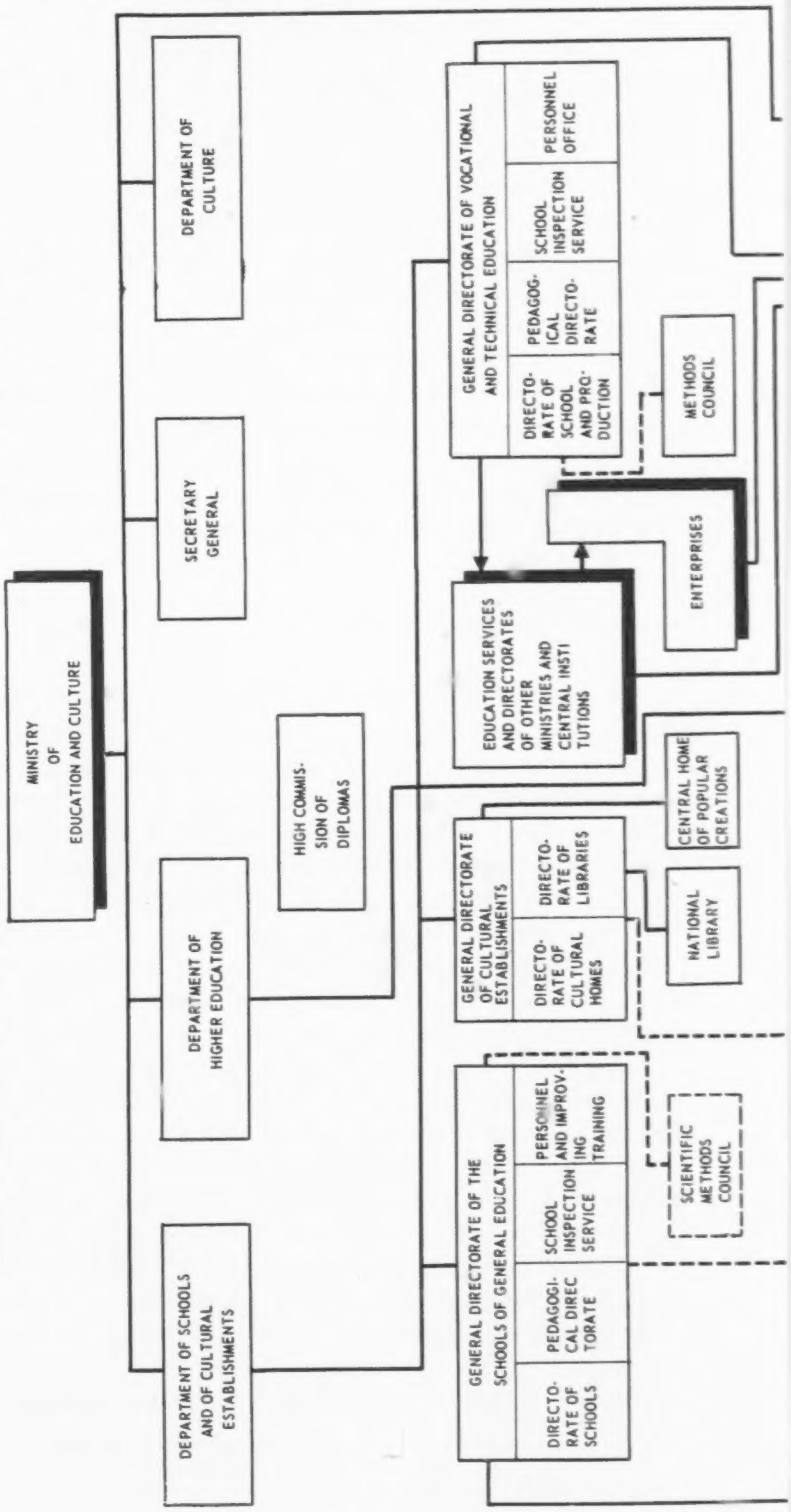
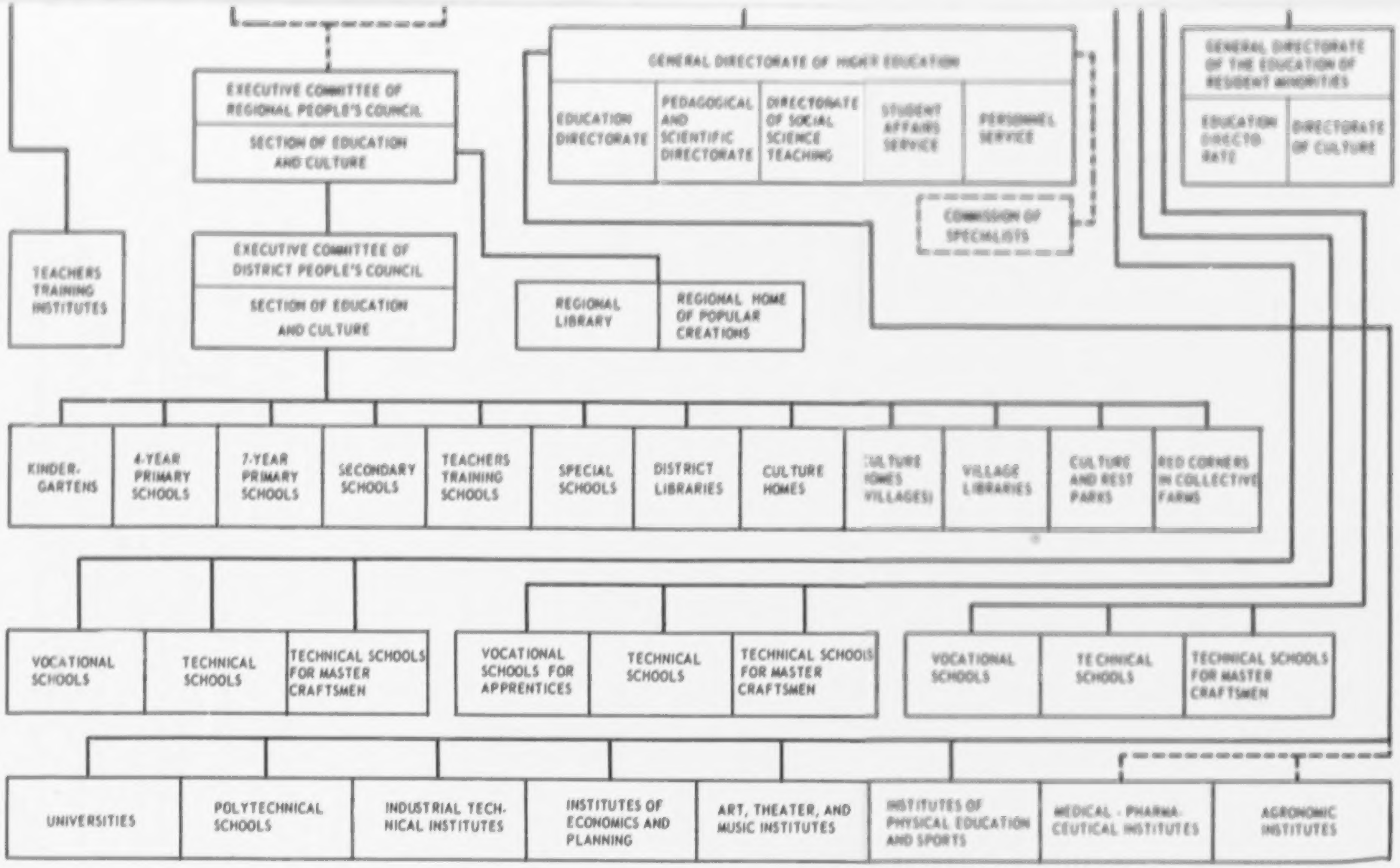
[27] For information on the teacher-training schools and institutes see p. 169ff.

[28] See Decision No. 1389 in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1954, 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura de Stat, 1954, p. 109–13.

Chart 2.—Organization and Administration of Education in the Rumanian People's Republic: 1957


MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
SECRETARY GENERAL
DEPARTMENT OF CULTURE
DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION
HIGH COMMISSION OF DIPLOMAS
DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOLS AND OF CULTURAL ESTABLISHMENTS
GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOL AND PRODUCTION
PEDAGOGICAL DIRECTORATE
SCHOOL INSPECTION SERVICE
PERSONNEL OFFICE
METHODS COUNCIL
ENTERPRISES
EDUCATION SERVICES AND DIRECTORATES OF OTHER MINISTRIES AND CENTRAL INSTITUTIONS
GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF CULTURAL ESTABLISHMENTS
DIRECTORATE OF CULTURAL HOMES
DIRECTORATE OF LIBRARIES
NATIONAL LIBRARY
CENTRAL HOME OF POPULAR CREATIONS
GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF THE SCHOOLS OF GENERAL EDUCATION
DIRECTORATE OF SCHOOLS
PEDAGOGICAL DIRECTORATE
SCHOOL INSPECTION SERVICE
PERSONNEL AND IMPROVING TRAINING
SCIENTIFIC METHODS COUNCIL


EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF REGIONAL PEOPLE'S COUNCIL
SECTION OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF HIGHER EDUCATION
EDUCATION DIRECTORATE
PEDAGOGICAL AND SCIENTIFIC DIRECTORATE
DIRECTORATE OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHING
STUDENT AFFAIRS SERVICE
PERSONNEL SERVICE
COMMISSION OF SPECIALISTS
GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF THE EDUCATION OF RESIDENT MINORITIES
EDUCATION DIRECTORATE
DIRECTORATE OF CULTURE
TEACHERS TRAINING INSTITUTES
EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF DISTRICT PEOPLE'S COUNCIL
SECTION OF EDUCATION AND CULTURE
REGIONAL LIBRARY
REGIONAL HOME OF POPULAR CREATIONS
KINDER-GARTENS
4-YEAR PRIMARY SCHOOLS
7-YEAR PRIMARY SCHOOLS
SECONDARY SCHOOLS
TEACHERS TRAINING SCHOOLS
SPECIAL SCHOOLS
DISTRICT LIBRARIES
CULTURE HOMES
CULTURE HOMES (VILLAGES)
VILLAGE LIBRARIES
CULTURE AND REST PARKS
RED CORNERS IN COLLECTIVE FARMS
VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS FOR MASTER CRAFTSMEN
VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS FOR APPRENTICES
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS FOR MASTER CRAFTSMEN
VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS
TECHNICAL SCHOOLS FOR MASTER CRAFTSMEN
UNIVERSITIES
POLYTECHNICAL SCHOOLS
INDUSTRIAL TECHNICAL INSTITUTES
INSTITUTES OF ECONOMICS AND PLANNING
ART, THEATER, AND MUSIC INSTITUTES
INSTITUTES OF PHYSICAL EDUCATION AND SPORTS
MEDICAL - PHARMACEUTICAL INSTITUTES
AGRONOMIC INSTITUTES

SOURCE: *World Survey of Education II: Primary Education.* Geneva UNESCO, 1958. p. 894-95.

inspectors-general are appointed by and are responsible to the Ministry of Education; the regional and district inspectors are appointed by the regional people's councils on recommendation of the Ministry.[29]

Financing Education

Methods

With the gradual elimination after 1948 of the private and parochial school system,[30] the suspension of the foreign or foreign-supported schools[31] and the concomitant confiscation and expropriation of the assets of churches, congregations, and private secular organizations used for the operation and maintenance of schools and student facilities,[32] financing of education has become the exclusive concern of the State.

Education is financed from the general State budget, the budget of the ministries sponsoring educational units, the budgets of the people's councils and, until the beginning of the 1961–62 academic year, partially from the budgets of the schools themselves. Higher education and technical-vocational education are financed by the central administration of the State, notably the Ministry of Education. The financing of those vocational schools and institutions of higher learning concurrently subordinated to other ministries or central governmental organizations is also shared by the sponsoring ministry or enterprise. Preprimary, primary, secondary, and teacher-training education, and schools for the handicapped, as well as auxiliary establishments such as the pioneer homes, orphanages, and dormitories, are financed by the regional, district (*raional*), or local people's councils.

Budgets

The budgetary process involves the submission of estimates by the principal or director of each educational institution to the authority having immediate jurisdiction over that institution. After necessary adjustments, the individual budgets are consolidated into a State budget prepared by the Ministry of Finance (*Ministerul finanţelor*) in conjunction with the Ministry of Education and other interested ministries.

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[29] *World Survey of Education: II. Primary Education.* Paris: UNESCO, 1958. p. 892. For greater detail on the inspection system in Rumania see *School Inspection* (Publication No. 174). Paris/Geneva: UNESCO, International Bureau of Education, 1956. p. 281–86. See also p. 161ff. of the present publication.

[30] Art. XXXV of Decree No. 175 cited above.

[31] *See* Decree No. 159 of July 21, 1948, in *Monitorul Oficial*, Bucharest, Part IA, No. 167, July 22, 1948, p. 6044.

[32] Decree No. 176 of August 2, 1948. For text *see Monitorul Oficial*, Bucharest, Part IA, No. 177, Aug. 3, 1948, p. 6324–25.

The main budgetary items for education are (1) salaries of teaching and auxiliary staffs, (2) laboratory equipment and equipment to implement the practical work program in production, (3) libraries, (4) scholarships, (5) construction, (6) dormitories, (7) repairs, (8) maintenance.[33]

The annual appropriations in the National budget for education and for all purposes during the 10 years from 1951 (the first year such appropriations were itemized in the budget) to 1960 are given in table 4.

Table 4.—Annual appropriations in National budget for education and for all purposes: 1951–60

Year	Appropriations (millions of *lei*)[1]		Appropriations for education as percent of expenditures for all purposes
	For education	For all purposes	
1960	3,491.4	55,409.5	6.3
1959	2,970.8	48,259.5	6.16
1958	2,771.2	44,688.9	6.2
1957	2,717.4	43,854.3	6.2
1956	2,445.7	41,934.5	5.83
1955	2,196.5	42,915.7	5.12
1954	2,140.7	38,352.0	5.58
1953	2,296.2	35,638.0	6.46
1952	1,936.4	28,988.2	6.68
1951	1,682.5	21,706.8	7.75

SOURCE OF DATA: Figures are based on tables 172 and 174 of the *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960*. Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960, p. 344–45, 348–49; and tables 113 and 115 of the *Rumanian Statistical Pocket Book 1961*. Bucharest: Central Statistical Office [1961], p. 198–99, 202.

[1] The figures may not reflect the actual value of the currency during the 10-year period. The official exchange rates of the Rumanian *leu* (defined as 148.112 milligrams of fine gold) per U. S. dollar, from 1953 to 1960, were the following:

Rate	*1953*	*1954*	*1955*	*1956*	*1957*	*1958*	*1959*	*1960*
Basic	11.20	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00
Tourist	11.20	6.00	6.00	6.00	12.00	12.00	12.00	15.00

The unofficial exchange rate during the same period fluctuated from 47.0 in 1953 to 28.0 in 1960. (SOURCE OF DATA on the *leu*: *Pick's Currency Yearbook*. New York: Pick Publishing Co., 1962. p. 370.)

In absolute figures, educational expenditures increased from 1,682.5 million *lei* in 1951 to 3,491.4 million *lei* in 1960.[34] During the corresponding period, however, total expenditures of the State increased from 21,706.8 to 55,409.5 million *lei*. With 1951 as a base of 100, the 1960 figures reveal that these total expenditures increased by 255.3 percent, but the educational expenditures by only 207.5 percent. In 1951, expenditures for education represented 7.55 percent of the national budget; in 1960, only 6.3 percent. An all-time low of 5.11 percent was reached in 1955.

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[33] *Financing of Education* (Publication No. 163). Paris/Geneva: UNESCO, International Bureau of Education, 1955. p. 227–29.

School Fees

Although primary education has traditionally been free, students attending the general secondary, technical secondary, and teacher-training schools, and the institutions of higher learning had to pay school fees (*taxe şcolare*) until the beginning of the 1961–62 academic year. Theoretically, these fees were established by taking into account the students' academic work and/or the income of their parents. A governmental decision of 1953 established rigid criteria and scales for determining fee schedules.[35] Children whose parents were industrial workers, peasants, collective farm workers, military personnel, engineers, technicians, State employees, or retired persons, and who attended the secondary, technical, or pedagogical schools had to pay an annual school fee of 100 *lei*; or if they attended institutions of higher learning, they paid 200 *lei*.

Scholarship holders and children excelling in their studies were exempt from paying fees, as were children of former "antifascist political prisoners" and children whose parent or parents had fallen "in the battle for the liberation of the Fatherland from the Fascist and capitalist yoke." Also exempt were children of meritorious teachers and those whose mothers had been decorated for service to the State. A 75-percent reduction in fees was given to children of decorated *stachanovişti*[36] (stakhanovites—persons who had surpassed production targets), miners, and peasants entering collectives. Children whose parents earned less than 600 *lei* a month and children whose parents were peasants earning less than 2,400 *lei* a year had a 50-percent reduction. All other children were required to pay a higher school fee.

Unless they were entitled to any of the exceptions mentioned above, students in secondary, technical, and teacher-training schools paid an annual school fee of 300 *lei*; in higher education, 500 *lei*. If they excelled in their studies, however, and had a good behavior record, they could be granted a 50-percent reduction.

School fees were paid to the institution attended by the student and could be paid in two equal installments: the first up to October 15 and the second up to February 25.

On September 6, 1961, the Council of Ministers decided that beginning with the 1961–62 academic year all school and examination

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[34] For official rate of exchange, 1953–60, see footnote to table 4.

[35] Decision No. 3145. Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1953, 1 Septembrie—31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1953. p. 116–18.

[36] The Rumanian rendering of a term originating in Soviet Russia. The Russian term was derived from the name of a certain coal miner, *Stakhanov*, decorated by Stalin in 1935 for having surpassed production quotas.

fees would be eliminated, education at all levels thus becoming free. School fees owed and unpaid as of that date would be canceled.[37]

Types of Education and Training

The types of education provided in the People's Republic of Rumania as of 1958 and the various age levels covered are illustrated in chart 3. As identified in this chart, the schools and institutions reflect the organizational changes of 1956–57, when they became approximately like their Soviet counterparts.

Preprimary Education

Organized on a voluntary basis, preprimary education[38] is provided for children 3 to 7 years of age. This type of education is given in nurseries and kindergartens administered by the central or local education authorities, the industrial or agricultural enterprises, or the trade unions. Depending upon the size of the school, classes may be organized on an age-group basis. The large schools have separate classes with the children divided into age groups 3 to 5, 5 to 6, and 6 to 7.

There are four basic types of preprimary nurseries: (1) part-time day nurseries (5 to 6 hours daily), (2) full-time day nurseries (10 to 13 hours daily), (3) full-time weekly nurseries (Monday to Saturday), and (4) seasonal nurseries (6 to 8 hours a day for 8 or 9 months of the year). While the first three types are organized for children whose parents are employed either in industry or agriculture, the fourth type is primarily for children whose parents work in rural areas.

Primary and Secondary Education

The elementary and secondary schools of Rumania[39] form an integral part of what is now known as the school of general education system.[40] State-organized, the schools of general education are of four types: (1) 4-year primary schools (grades 1–4); (2) 7- (8-) year

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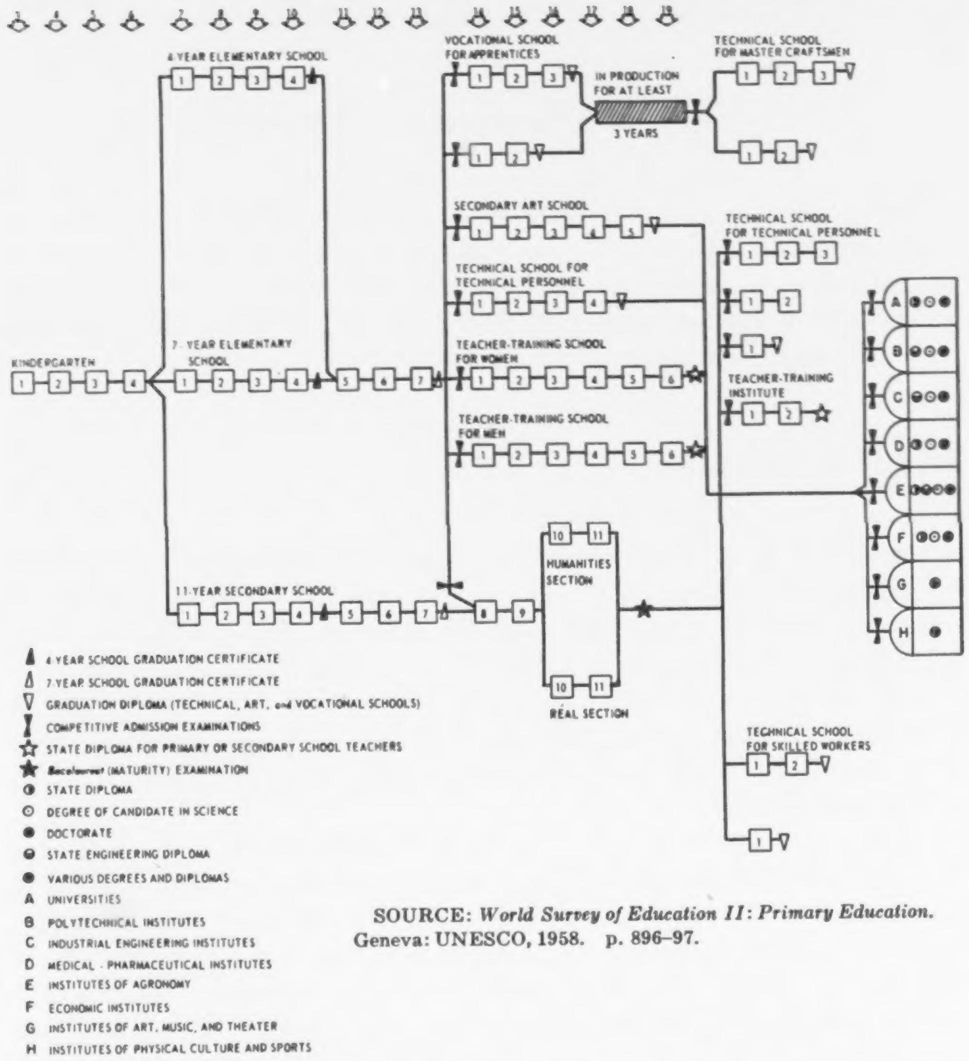
[37] See Decision No. 546 on making free education universal in Rumania, in *Ministerul Justiției, Colecție de legi, decrete, hotărîri și dispoziții 1961, 1 Septembrie—31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura științifică, 1962, p. 43–44.

[38] See p. 34ff.

[39] See p. 39ff.

[40] Though the Rumanian term *școală de cultură generală* is literally translated as "school of general culture," it is rendered throughout the present publication as "school of general education."

Chart 3.—The Educational System of the Rumanian People's Republic: 1957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12
13
14
15
16
17
18
19
4-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
KINDERGARTEN
7-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
11-YEAR SECONDARY SCHOOL
VOCATIONAL SCHOOL FOR APPRENTICES
IN PRODUCTION FOR AT LEAST 3 YEARS
TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR MASTER CRAFTSMEN
SECONDARY ART SCHOOL
TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR TECHNICAL PERSONNEL
TEACHER-TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN
TEACHER-TRAINING SCHOOL FOR MEN
TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR TECHNICAL PERSONNEL
TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTE
HUMANITIES SECTION
REAL SECTION
TECHNICAL SCHOOL FOR SKILLED WORKERS
A
B
C
D
E
F
G
H
4-YEAR SCHOOL GRADUATION CERTIFICATE
7-YEAR SCHOOL GRADUATION CERTIFICATE
GRADUATION DIPLOMA (TECHNICAL, ART, and VOCATIONAL SCHOOLS)
COMPETITIVE ADMISSION EXAMINATIONS
STATE DIPLOMA FOR PRIMARY OR SECONDARY SCHOOL TEACHERS
Baccalaureat (MATURITY) EXAMINATION
STATE DIPLOMA
DEGREE OF CANDIDATE IN SCIENCE
DOCTORATE
STATE ENGINEERING DIPLOMA
VARIOUS DEGREES AND DIPLOMAS
A UNIVERSITIES
B POLYTECHNICAL INSTITUTES
C INDUSTRIAL ENGINEERING INSTITUTES
D MEDICAL - PHARMACEUTICAL INSTITUTES
E INSTITUTES OF AGRONOMY
F ECONOMIC INSTITUTES
G INSTITUTES OF ART, MUSIC, AND THEATER
H INSTITUTES OF PHYSICAL CULTURE AND SPORTS

SOURCE: *World Survey of Education II: Primary Education.* Geneva: UNESCO, 1958. p. 896–97.

elementary schools (grades 1–7 or 8), the first four grades corresponding with those of the 4-year primary schools; (3) 11-year schools (grades 1–11), which incorporate both elementary and secondary grades in one school; (4) special elementary schools for the handicapped.

Grades 5–7 of the 7-year and 11-year schools correspond to the former gymnasia, and grades 8–11 to the former lycea. Although grades 1–4 are taught only in day sessions, grades 5–7 (8) of the 7-(8-) year elementary schools and grades 8–11 of the secondary cycle are also given in evening sessions or correspondence courses. The school year begins September 15 and ends June 30. In the rural schools and the evening sections of the city schools the academic year begins October 15 and is divided into three semesters of equal length. At the end of the first and second semesters a 2-week vacation occurs, and the summer vacation follows the third semester. Classes take up 5 or 6 hours daily, 6 days a week.

Vocational and Technical Education

Vocational education seeks to train politically reliable and technically competent skilled workers needed by industry and agriculture. Geared to the immediate demands of the national economy, the vocational and technical schools operate under the immediate sponsorship of the large State enterprises, factories, plants, collective farms, machine-and-tractor stations, and institutions, with certain responsibilities being shared by ministries and other central governmental organizations. In the early 1960's there were three basic types of vocational schools: vocational schools for apprentices, technical schools for skilled workers and technical personnel, and technical schools for master craftsmen.[41]

In the establishment of vocational schools, the sponsoring agricultural or industrial enterprises must take into consideration three needs: (1) for raising the volume of production in conformity with State economic plans, (2) for developing the enterprises on a long-range basis, and (3) for replacing the workers normally leaving the labor force through retirement.

The organization, administration, and operation of the vocational schools are the combined responsibility of the sponsoring enterprises and the pertinent economic ministries or other central governmental institutions. The Ministry of Education has jurisdiction over synchronizing instruction, applying approved academic and didactic methods, and systemizing the school inspection system. Curricula, syllabi, and textbooks are established and selected by the sponsoring enterprises or ministries in collaboration with the Ministry of Education.

The *vocational schools for apprentices* offer 2- to 3-year programs, depending upon the trade. Admission is based upon an entrance examination which only graduates of the 7-year school may take. The *technical schools* offer 1- to 2-year programs and admit only graduates of the 11-year schools. The *technical schools for master craftsmen* recruit their students from the highly skilled workers in enterprises or other State economic units who have graduated from vocational schools or who have equivalent education.

Both vocational and technical schools have an academic year beginning September 1 and ending June 30, divided into two equal semesters.

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[41] See p. 89ff.

Higher Education

Like the vocational and technical schools, the institutions of higher learning[42] are also intended primarily to train the specialized personnel needed for development of the national economy and the disciplined, well-indoctrinated "activists" needed to bring about what the Communists call "the cultural revolution." Higher education in the Rumanian People's Republic aims to have a "realistic-scientific" content based on the fundamental principles of Marxism-Leninism. Since 1957, the institutions of higher learning have become increasingly polytechnicized and the social composition of the student body has gradually been altered through eliminating "unreliable" elements and replacing them with students of working-class or peasant origin.

Higher education is offered in universities and in polytechnical, technical, economic, medical, medical-pharmaceutical, agronomic, teacher-training, and art institutes. The number of years of required study ranges from 4 to 6, depending upon the field. Admission is through competitive entrance examination, although "gold medal" honor students from secondary and technical schools are admitted without examination.

The student's field of study and the institution which he will attend are determined by Government regulations. Each institution and each field of study has an annual student quota, set up by the Party and the appropriate governmental organs and geared to immediate man-power needs and long-range economic objectives.

The institutions of higher learning operate under the overall direction and jurisdiction of the General Directorate of Higher Education of the Department of Higher Education in the Ministry of Education. In the case of institutions with dual administration the jurisdiction is shared by this General Directorate with the sponsoring ministry or other governmental organ, although the educational policy for these institutions is established and controlled by the Ministry of Education alone.

Upon graduating from an institution of higher learning, a student obtains a State diploma or license (*licenţă*) enabling him to practice his profession or pursue graduate studies leading to the degree of aspirant (*aspirantură*), candidate in science (*candidat în ştiinţă*), or doctorate (*doctoratul*). Qualifications for obtaining higher degrees and rules for issuing diplomas are determined by the High Commission on Diplomas of the Ministry of Education.[43]

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[42] See p. 108ff.

[43] See p. 155ff.

Enrollment

The enrollment figures for 1938–39 and 1948–49 through 1959–60 are shown in table 5. Covering all levels of education, the table uses the pre-World War II figures for purposes of comparison. In addition to these enrollment statistics,[44] the table also gives the number of schools and institutions available for each type of education and, with the exception of the teacher-training schools and institutes, the number of teachers. Quantitatively, Rumanian education has made considerable progress since the end of World War II, particularly since the implementation of the 1948 Educational Reform Act. This growth, however, has not been markedly homogeneous.

The statistical data issued for each branch of education are analyzed and evaluated in detail in the enrollment sections of chapters III and VI.

Long-Range Plans

The long-range plans of Rumanian education were announced during the Third Congress of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party of May 1960, which established directives for the development of the national economy during 1960–1965. According to these directives, the main tasks of Rumanian education during this period are specified as follows:

> To make the 7-year schools universal by 1962–63; to train the skilled workers, the intermediate and higher cadres needed for the development of the national economy, culture, and health protection; and to establish close ties between education and the realities of socialist construction. During this period there will be a gradual transition to the 8-year school of general education . . .
>
> To enlarge the national base of education at all levels, the investments from State funds will be over two times as large as those of 1954–1959.

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[44] Although statistical data from official Rumanian pronouncements and statistical publications have considerable meaning and significance, one must keep in mind the generally unverifiable nature of these data and the fact that they are designed primarily for external consumption. The typical problems mentioned in various responsible Western sources concerning the use of Soviet statistics are applicable also to Rumanian statistics. For example:

> (a) Details concerning tabulation procedures and internal organization of materials are sparse or lacking. (b) Significant gaps appear in many statistical series . . . On occasion, for categories reported in annual series, years and categories are selected which demonstrate the most substantial increase. (c) There are the problems of data reported without given percentages, or with unreported changing definitions, or given only in percentages. (d) There are aggregations of distinct categories which tend to conceal unfavorable trends or exaggerate successes. (Seymour M. Rosen. "Higher Education in the U.S.S.R." in *Dimensions of Soviet Economic Power, Part IV, The Development of Human Resources—Studies Prepared for the Joint Economic Committee, Congress of the United States.* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962. p. 293.)

For a more detailed discussion on the difficulties in working with this kind of statistics, see Nicholas DeWitt, *Education and Professional Employment in the USSR.* Washington: National Science Foundation, 1961. p. 549-53.

Table 5.—Number of schools, pupils, and teachers in day and evening sessions and correspondence courses, by level: 1938–39 and 1948–49 through 1959–60

[— indicates that institution was not in existence]

Item	1938–39	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Preschool Education													
Kindergartens	1,577	2,998	3,766	4,435	5,068	5,781	6,360	6,406	6,422	6,527	6,641	6,674	6,837
Pupils	90,787	157,934	186,807	199,096	230,950	249,131	278,282	274,953	275,433	276,673	281,141	293,257	315,998
Kindergarten teachers	1,819	3,951	4,931	5,826	6,658	8,119	9,026	9,324	9,623	10,201	10,467	10,688	11,326
Schools of General Education													
Schools[1]	13,865	14,988	15,354	15,556	15,594	15,520	15,645	15,751	15,893	15,963	16,116	16,222	15,600
Pupils[1]	1,604,481	1,846,202	1,847,778	1,837,890	1,830,152	1,742,107	1,753,038	1,717,794	1,732,160	1,859,270	1,975,269	2,144,812	2,338,447
Teachers[2]	46,435	66,105	71,295	71,992	74,696	79,247	82,098	85,092	84,112	88,208	90,914	95,315	97,907
Teacher-Training Schools[3]													
Schools	55	64	104	110	110	115	113	57	38	14	13	13	13
Pupils	5,537	14,376	27,889	33,046	34,722	28,761	27,826	13,079	6,955	3,460	2,683	3,618	5,246
Technical Education													
Schools	142	454	380	377	375	372	366	281	191	206	220	237	268
Pupils	14,746	75,168	78,963	96,900	110,682	105,966	114,829	79,078	23,160	29,236	31,220	34,933	46,853
Teachers	3,871	6,482	5,590	5,945	6,596	6,535	7,216	6,033	1,352	2,141	2,720	2,648	3,355
Vocational Education for Apprentices													
Schools	224	511	570	546	484	382	350	342	402	410	408	508	505
Pupils	39,250	61,372	80,099	99,257	106,953	103,855	87,364	72,826	94,409	98,644	92,734	92,243	102,012
Teachers	896	4,314	5,753	7,808	6,525	6,198	6,016	5,443	5,564	6,248	5,308	5,424	6,081
2-Year Teacher-Training Institutes													
Institutes	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	6	7	7
Pupils	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	212	389	789	1,518
3-Year Teacher-Training Institutes													
Institutes	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5
Pupils	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,228
Higher Education													
Faculties	33	129	135	136	142	150	155	144	127	112	98	95	88
Students total	26,489	48,676	48,615	53,007	61,123	71,513	80,593	78,860	77,633	81,206	80,919	67,849	61,980
Foreign students in Rumania	—	—	—	—	*357*	*526*	*750*	*833*	*877*	*986*	*920*	*862*	*953*
Teachers[4]	2,194	5,638	7,088	8,518	8,917	8,469	7,866	8,278	8,369	8,154	8,982	8,009	8,041

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R., 1960*. Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 354–55, table 175 ("Education at all levels—Day and evening sessions and correspondence courses").

[1] Beginning with 1954–55, include evening schools for working youths and their students.

[2] Includes teachers in teacher-training schools.

[3] Beginning with 1957–58, schooling period was extended from 4 to 6 years.

[4] Beginning with 1957–58, includes teaching and laboratory assistants.

> During 1960–1965 about 15,000 classrooms will be built; of these, 4,000 will be for the schools of general education in the cities and industrial centers and about 11,000 for schools in the rural areas.
>
> During 1960–1965 about 260,000 skilled workers, over 100,000 intermediate technical cadres, and about 54,000 cadres of higher qualifications will be trained in the vocational and technical schools and enter the fields of production.
>
> For this purpose, the number of students admitted in the first year of the schools training these skilled workers will have to increase over 2.5 times over the 1959 figure, and the first-year schooling in the field of intermediate technical training will have to increase over two times during the corresponding period. The total number of students in the first year will be 38 percent larger in 1965 than in 1959.
>
> In higher education, particular attention will be paid to technical education; the number of those admitted into the first year of the technical institutes will increase by 1965 to almost two times the 1959 figure. The total number of engineers employed in the national economy in 1965 will be about 80,000, as against the approximately 59,000 in 1959.
>
> In order to enable an ever-larger number of workers to graduate from secondary and higher institutions without leaving the field of production, the evening schools and correspondence courses will be continuously developed.
>
> The present facilities of higher education will be enlarged through new constructions, among other places at the Polytechnical Institute of Bucharest. Student dormitories to include about 15,500 accommodations will be built.[45]

One of the most interesting aspects of the long-range plans is that Rumania apparently has also decided to adopt the 8-year school of general education introduced in the Soviet Union in 1958. In line with the new polytechnical system of education, the majority of the students after completing 7- or 8-year elementary school will be channeled into industry or agriculture with academic study on merely a part-time basis. Only students of superior academic ability are envisioned as continuing full-time secondary education through the 11 years, and even they will have to do some factory or farm work.

The reforms introduced since 1948, especially those adopted since 1956, fulfill a practical as well as an ideological purpose. They are expected to provide at a faster pace the large number of skilled workers and specialists with practical experience required to fulfill the ambitious targets of the State production plans, while also insuring that the influential intelligentsia and the new managerial elite will have a background of proletarian experience.

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[45] *Scînteia*, Bucharest, May 19, 1960. See also Ilie Murgulescu, "Avîntul învăţămîntului şi culturii în lumina hotărîrilor congresului al III-lea al P.M.R." (The Advancement of Education and Culture in the Light of the Decisions of the Third Congress of the Rumanian Workers' Party"). *Revista de Pedagogie* (Review of Pedagogy), Bucharest, X:4:15–28, April 1961.

Chapter III

Preprimary Education: Nurseries and Kindergartens

Organization and Objectives

PREPRIMARY EDUCATION in Rumania, closely approximating its Soviet prototype in organization and objectives, has become an integral component of the country's planned economic system. It takes children between 3 and 7 years of age, primarily those of women employed in industrial and agricultural enterprises or engaged in "cultural-political" activities, thus fulfilling a dual function of child care and upbringing. In line with the general educational policies of the State, this upbringing emphasizes the training of children in the service of the new social order. In the words of Vasilichi, a former Minister of Education: "The State must give particular care to the child's first steps in life . . . In bringing the children together in nurseries and kindergartens we teach them . . . to know the world that surrounds them, we discipline them, we train them for communal life."[1]

Preprimary education is available in two types of schools: nurseries (*cămine de zi*) and kindergartens (*grădiniţe de copii*). They may be organized by trade unions, industrial and agricultural enterprises, State and civic organizations, and people's councils. The preschool units operate under the general guidance and control of the Ministry of Education through the education sections of the regional, district (*raional*) and urban people's councils.

In terms of their function and purpose, the kindergartens are grouped into three distinct types:[2]

★Full-time kindergartens (*grădiniţe de copii cu orar normal*) with a teaching and play schedule of 9 to 12 hours

★part-time kindergartens (*grădiniţe de copii cu orar redus*) with 6 hours

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[1] Alexandru Cretzianu, *Captive Rumania—A Decade of Soviet Rule.* New York: Praeger, 1956. p. 211.

[2] *See* "Decision No. 368 Regarding the Organization and Financing of Kindergartens in the Rumanian People's Republic" in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1956 1 Martie–30 Aprilie.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1956. p. 126–32.

- seasonal kindergartens (*grădinițe de copii sezoniere*) with 6 to 12 hours, when in operation.

Full-time kindergartens may be organized by enterprises, institutions, economic organizations, and State or collective farms in accordance with the directives of their respective ministries. They may be organized also by the executive committees of district (*raional*) and urban people's councils for the children of women working in small enterprises with no educational facilities of their own. The part-time kindergartens are organized by the people's councils, and the seasonal ones primarily by the collectives and agricultural associations under the guidance of the district (*raional*) people's councils.

In addition to these three standard types of kindergartens, there are also a few such schools organized on a weekly schedule (*grădinițe de copii cu orar săptămînal*) for children whose parents work in another locality and who have no close relatives to take care of them. In such cases, the children are taken to the kindergarten Monday morning and they stay there until Saturday afternoon, when the parents are expected to take them home.

With the exception of certain isolated cases, full-time kindergartens may be organized only if they have an enrollment of at least 30 children. To establish kindergartens with 25 children, special permission is required from the financing, health, and educational authorities.

The size of the nursery schools and kindergartens varies. In the large ones, children are divided into three age groups. The youngest, 3–5 years of age, are in the nursery group, those of 5–6 in the middle group, and those of 6 to 7 in the third group.

The educational activities of preschool establishments are carried out in accordance with the programs outlined in the syllabi and instructions of the Ministry of Education.[8] These are prepared separately for the three age groups, specifying in detail the type of teaching and training required for the physical, intellectual, and "moral-political" education of children. An important part of the educational process is devoted to "correct" character and habit training.

Although the kindergarten teachers have considerable discretionary power to organize the daily routine, much of the curriculum is compulsory. All children, for example, must have a number of formal lessons, the length of which is determined by their respective age groups. The lowest age group must have one such lesson a day, usually lasting 10 to 15 minutes, the middle age group, one 20-minute lesson a day, and the third group two 30-minute lessons a day. In the course of their compulsory lessons, the children in the oldest age group learn to count and solve simple arithmetic problems involving figures up to 10, answer questions clearly and correctly, tell stories, do simple geometric-like drawing, and use a pencil. They also learn simple verses and songs, as well as a number of games.

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[8] See Ministerul Învățămîntului Public, *Metodica activităților obligatorii în instituțiile preșcolare* (Methods of Compulsory Activities in Preschool Institutions). Bucharest: [illegible], 1956. 96 p.

Beginning with the 1962 school year, children in the oldest age group also become familiar with common Russian words and expressions. For this purpose, the Government issued a new book entitled *Sandra Is Learning Russian*. Rumania has thus become the first among the people's democracies to introduce Russian as a compulsory subject in the kindergartens.[4]

During the periods of free play, the children are allowed, for example, to play games, watch puppet shows, or take short walks. Many of the walks are teacher-planned and they are all calculated to enable the children to acquire new impressions and experiences.

Considerable attention is devoted to assuring that the children receive at this early age a good foundation for their Communist orientation.[5] The games, verses, and songs they learn are permeated by political themes and the classrooms are decorated with portraits of leading Rumanian and foreign Communist figures. The children often march or go on excursions carrying small flags. In their art classes they are guided to draw emblems like the hammer and sickle and are encouraged to participate in the activities of the "Young Naturalists." Through being entrusted with small responsibilities, such as keeping the classroom clean and helping to look after the school gardens and pets, they are taught appreciation of communal life and property.

The educational process in general, according to a Rumanian expert, emphasizes the following:

> - Enriching the children's minds with the perception of things closest to them—the family, the kindergarten, the birthplace, and the surrounding natural milieu . . . in order to familiarize them with . . . socialist reality . . .
> - Nurturing a complex patriotic sentiment that will encompass the development of a feeling of love for the members of the family, the children and personnel in the kindergarten, the workers, and the leaders of the country. The framework of the child's activities is gradually enlarged through orienting his feelings of love and admiration for the mother toward feelings of love and admiration for the Nation, the USSR, and other socialist and peace-loving countries.
> - Developing habits of patriotic behavior by placing the children in concrete situations in which they can act on these feelings.[6]

The methods used for achieving these aims are varied. One of the most effective is to engage the children in preparing and organizing

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[4] *The New York Times*, Aug. 10, 1962.

[5] *Ibid.*, p. [illegible].

[6] Alexandrina [illegible]. "Despre educarea copiilor preșcolari în spiritul patriotismului socialist și al internaționalismului proletar" (On the Training of Preschool Children in the Spirit of Socialist Patriotism and Proletarian Internationalism). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, [illegible] February 1962.

"proletarian holiday" celebrations. In this context they are indoctrinated with the "achievements" of the workers under Communist Party leadership. They are also told little stories about the teachers of the working class (Marx, Engels, and Lenin), "the wonderful land of the Soviet Union," and the significance of the various holidays (May 1, November 7, etc.) for "world progress." Concomitantly, they are "informed" about how miserably children and workers live in capitalist countries, as demonstrated by pictures in the Party press.[7]

The Teaching and Auxiliary Staffs

The nursery school and kindergarten teaching staffs are composed entirely of women. They are graduates of special teacher-training schools for women (*școli pedagogice de educatoare*), which they enter after graduating from the 7-year school.[8] To keep up to date in their training they must periodically attend a number of refresher courses. The entire professional staff, including teachers, as well as the nonprofessional staff, of the kindergartens operate under the guidance of a director, usually a woman, who is appointed by and is responsible to the education section of the executive committee of the particular regional people's council.

Theoretically, the kindergartens with full-time or weekly schedules have a medical staff composed of a physician, a medical nurse, and a children's nurse. The medical nurse, who must have special training, is expected to aid the doctor in treating the children, keep their medical records in order, inspect them upon arrival each morning, and take care of their health in general. The children's nurse is responsible for the children's cleanliness and helps dress and undress them. Part-time and seasonal kindergartens have no permanent medical staff of their own. Their health programs are occasionally inspected by the district medical officer and nurse.

Financing

Preschool education in Rumania is not compulsory. Those parents (or guardians) who desire to send their children to kindergarten must pay a tuition fee depending upon their financial status. The fees are prorated on the basis of family income, number of children in the family, location of the school, and number of hours the child is at school. Parents with collective incomes of less than 250 lei a month are exempt from tuition payments. For children attending full-time schedules (9–12 hours), the monthly fees range from 7 *lei* per child for parents (or guardians) with collective incomes of 251 to 500 *lei* to 36 *lei* for those with incomes above 1,000 *lei*. For children attending the kindergartens on a weekly basis the range is between a minimum of 14 *lei* per month to a maximum of 72. In the part-time and seasonal kindergartens the minimum and maximum tuition fee are from 5 to 15 and from 2 to 6 *lei*, respectively. Substantial reductions in the tuition fees are granted families with several children. The fees are reduced by 20 percent for families with two children, 30 percent for those with three, 40 percent for those with four, and by 50 percent for those with five. Families with more than five children are exempt from paying fees if their income is under 700 *lei;* and if their income is above that amount they benefit from a 60 percent reduction.

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[7] Ibid.

[8] See p. [illegible]

As a rule the kindergartens are organized on the basis of extra-budgetary financing. Budgetary allocations are made only in case the independent incomes of the kindergartens are not sufficient to meet their expenditures. In the case of insolvent kindergartens operating under the guidance of cooperative or civic organizations, the difference is covered from the funds of these organizations.

Enrollment[9]

Quantitatively, no other branch of Rumanian education has made as much progress as the preschool system. The number of kindergartens increased from 1,577 in 1938–39 to 2,998 in 1948–49 and 6,837 in 1959–60.[10] Concurrently enrollment increased from 90,787 children in 1938–39 to 157,934 in 1948–49 and 315,998 in 1959–60.[11] The number of kindergarten teachers rose during the corresponding period from 1,819 to 3,951 and 11,336.[12]

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[9] See table 5.

[10] See footnote [illegible] of chapter III.

[11] No statistics are available as to how many of these children attended "full-time", "part-time", or "seasonal" kindergartens.

[12] For the regional distribution of the number of kindergartens and kindergarten pupils and teachers during academic years 1938–39 through 1959–60, see *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960*, op. cit., p. [illegible]. For changes between [illegible] and [illegible], see table 5.

Chapter IV

General Education: Elementary and Secondary Schools

Structure and Functions

IN THE IMPLEMENTATION of the basic provisions of the Educational Reform Act of 1948, perhaps no other educational sector was altered as radically as the one encompassing the primary and secondary school units.[1] According to that Act, these units are intended to function in such a way that they will:

- prepare the graduates required for "the construction of socialism"
- instill a spirit of "socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism"
- develop a scientific concept of life and society
- foster an atheistic attitude toward unexplained natural phenomena
- develop basic scientific principles and a socialist attitude toward labor and work through polytechnical education
- develop mind and body in a well-rounded manner.

The schools are to carry out their functions in various ways—for example, through teaching each subject in conformity with the prevailing interpretation of Marxist doctrine as favored by the Communist Party.

The results of the first few years following passage of the Educational Reform Act seem to have been mixed. In terms of new schools built or old ones renovated and of increased numbers of pupils and teachers, the State was relatively successful. From its point of view, however, the quality and ideological orientation of the teachers left much to be desired, as did the various programs and curricula prepared by the educational authorities. Educators, as well as party and Government figures, criticized the frequent revisions of syllabi and textbooks, the lack of laboratories or their unsatisfactory equipment, the shortage of agricultural experimental lots, and the overcrowding of school programs. Such criticisms found ample expression during the Second Congress of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party held in December 1955. Convened to discuss general problems relating to the adoption of the second Five-Year Plan, the Congress called for reorganization of the schools along polytechnical lines in order to bring about a closer relationship between theoretical-academic studies and industrial and agricultural production. It called for a "closer-to-life" educational system in which the students were envisioned as becoming familiar with both manual labor and intellectual pursuits.[2]

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[1] See particularly articles III and VI-XV of Act No. 175/1948.

In addition to emphasizing the requirement for practical work, the implementation of the directives of the Congress involved the need for revising the entire complex of the primary-secondary school system. Plans were formulated early in 1956 calling for a reorganization of these schools and of the school programs. These were allegedly "debated and discussed" in great detail in the course of a great number of teacher-parent meetings and of many national and local pedagogical conferences. The end result was the adoption on July 20, 1956 of Decision No. 1380, issued jointly by the Central Committee of the Party and by the Council of Ministers.[3] While it retains the basic educational principles outlined in the Educational Reform Act of 1948, it calls for the fundamental revision of the operation and network of the primary-secondary schools which now constitute the so-called "schools of general education."[4]

Placed, like most other educational institutions in Rumania, under the guidance and control of the respective education sections of the people's councils, the schools of general education aim at bringing about the polytechnical education of youth through emphasis on the mathematical, physical, and natural sciences and through an extensive program of practical work in industrial or agricultural production, during both the regular academic year and a part of the summer vacation. This is supplemented by the "patriotic" education of the pupils through teaching all the subjects provided for in the curriculum, especially those dealing with "scientific socialism" or "political economy."

The increased load of studies necessitated extending the schools of general education from 10 to 11 years. Accordingly, grades 1 to 7 were placed in the elementary schools and grades 8 to 11 in the secondary. In the latter, beginning with grade 10, two special sections may be formed: the scientific or *réal* section (*secţia reală*), in which physics, mathematics, and the natural sciences are emphasized and Latin is no longer required; and the humanities section (*secţia umanistică*), in which Latin, Rumanian language and literature, Russian language and literature, English (or French or German), and elements of Marxism-Leninism are emphasized. Although grades 1 through 4 are exclusively day schools, grades 5 through 7 in addition to having day school also offer evening sessions and correspondence courses.[5] The same is true of grades 8 through 11. The elementary and secondary day schools are composed of the following categories:

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[2] For the text of the Directives of the Second Congress see *Directivele congresului al II-lea al Partidului Muncitoresc Romîn cu privire la cel de-al doilea plan cincinal de dezvoltare a economiei naţionale pe anii 1956-1960.* (Directives of the Second Congress of the Rumanian Workers' Party Concerning the Second Five-Year Plan for the Development of the National Economy in 1956-1960). Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1955. p. [illegible].

[3] For text of Decision No. 1380/1956 see Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii. 1956 1 Iulie-31 August.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1956. p. [illegible]. For an English translation, see the bibliography last item under "Legal Sources."

[4] See footnote 40, chapter II.

- ★"general schools of general education" covering all 11 grades
- ★7-year elementary schools encompassing the first seven grades of the schools of general education
- ★4-year primary schools encompassing the first four grades of the 7-year school of general education
- ★gymnasiums roughly corresponding to the American junior high school and including only grades 5, 6, and 7 of the schools of general education
- ★lyceums or high schools encompassing grades 5 through 11 or 8 through 11 of the schools of general education.

As was the case to a large extent in pre-World War II days, Rumanian elementary and high schools in postwar days until the middle of the 1950's were separate for boys and girls. In accordance with the provisions of the 1956 Decision the first eight grades of the schools of general education became coeducational beginning with the 1956–57 academic year. The other grades followed gradually.

Like their counterparts in the Soviet Union and the other people's democracies, pupils of the schools of general education and the teacher-training and special technical schools wear special school uniforms. These were introduced gradually beginning with the 1956–57 academic year.[6]

The directives of the Second Congress envisioned a situation under which, by 1960–61, the fifth grade would enroll 90 percent of the 4-year school graduates; and under which, according to the Third Five-Year Plan, the 7-year school would be universal and compulsory.[7] At first only the first four grades were made compulsory, but villages and rural communities having 7-year schools were required by virtue of Decision No. 1035/1958 to make the 7-year schooling period universal beginning with the 1958–59 academic year.[8]

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[5] See p. [illegible].

[6] Decision No. [illegible] Relating to the Gradual Introduction of School Uniforms, in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1956 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1956. p. [illegible].

[7] See footnote 2 of this Chapter.

[8] Decision No. 1035/1958 of the Council of Ministers in *Colecţie de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al R.P.R.* (Collection of Decisions and Orders of the Council of Ministers of the Rumanian People's Republic). Bucharest, No. [illegible], Aug. [illegible], 1958.

But since this governmental action applied only to places where 7-year schools already existed, it appears that the extension of free compulsory education is to a large extent only nominal. Furthermore, with rural communities retaining the 4-year compulsory level, the lack of detailed planning to elevate their schools to the 7-year compulsory level has left an irregular pattern of schooling in the provinces.

The process of making the 7-year school universal and compulsory, as directed by the Third Congress of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party in June 1960, was accelerated to such a degree that 96 percent of the fourth-grade graduates were registered in the fifth grade during 1960–61. By 1961–62, it was anticipated, fifth-grade registration would include 99 percent of the fourth-grade graduates, thus signalizing the end of the drive to make the 7-year school universal. On October 7, 1961, the Council of State of the Rumanian People's Republic decreed that beginning with the 1961–62 academic year, a gradual transition (starting with the first four grades) be made towards establishing a universal and compulsory 8-year school system. Free and compulsory, the 8-year school is considered as representing the first phase of a 12-year school of general education, also planned eventually to become universal.[9]

The effects of the October 7, 1961 decree will not be immediately evident, since according to its terms the implementation affects only those children entering fifth grade in 1961–62. The possible long-range consequence of the new schooling program, however, may from the State's point of view be an improvement in the quality and political reliability of the working force at lower age levels than before. With an added year of formal education, the vocational training of future apprentices and farm workers will, it is hoped, be greatly enhanced.

Curricula and Syllabi

In the highly centralized educational system of Rumania, the curricula and syllabi for all schools and all grades are established by the Ministry of Education. In its directives and instructions, the Ministry follows the principles outlined in the various decisions of the Communist Party and of the Council of Ministers.[10]

Each course has its detailed syllabus outlining the material to be covered and the teaching aids to be used throughout the school year.

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[9] See Decree No. [illegible] on the transition to the universal, free, and compulsory 8-year school in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1961, 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie.* Bucureşti: Editura ştiinţifică, 1962. p. 8. For changes in the 8-year school curriculum, see p. [illegible].

[10] See p. [illegible].

The General Directorate of the Schools of General Education in the Department of Schools of the Ministry of Education draws up the curricula and syllabi.[11] The Institute of Pedagogical Sciences (*Institutul de ştiinţe pedagogice*)[12] then examines them, conducts field tests, and approves the result. At this point the Ministry of Education issues the final curricula and syllabi and neither the teachers nor the principals may introduce changes. However, although no alteration or exchange in the number of hours allotted for the different subjects is permitted, both the arrangement of the syllabus and the time of day specified for studying each subject may be adjusted in terms of particular conditions prevailing in any school.

The syllabus serves as a guide both to the classroom teachers and to the textbook authors. In addition to specifying the number of hours to be devoted to each area in the discipline, the syllabus also points out the elements to be stressed during the year. If there are no up-to-date textbooks to fit the requirements of the syllabus in use, this syllabus also specifies the material to be deleted from or added to the available textbooks.[13]

Teachers and school officials are expected to report on whatever flaws they find in the syllabi. This they usually do at the national and local pedagogical conferences held regularly during the academic year. At these conferences teachers and school administrators report on their experiences with the programs and syllabi and later they may actually witness the incorporation of some of their "positive" views in the new plans.

In line with the new "realist-scientific" principle followed in Rumanian education, as in all other fields of Rumanian culture, the curricula and syllabi reflect the ever-increasing emphasis placed on the physical and natural sciences over the humanities. Table 6 shows the percentage of time allotted to the humanities, the natural sciences, and other subjects, as outlined in the 1910 Educational Law (reflecting the pre-World War I system), the 1928 Educational Act (reflecting the system between World Wars I and II), and the 1948

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[11] The Department of Higher Education of the Ministry draws up the curricula and syllabi for universities and other institutions of higher education.

[12] See p. 176ff.

[13] See, for example, the following syllabi published for use in the schools of general education by the Department of Schools of the Ministry of Education (may be examined in the U.S. Office of Education): *Programa de matematică pentru clasele V–VII.* Bucharest, 1958, 19 p.; *Programa de matematică pentru clasele VIII–XI.* Bucharest, 1960, 43 p.; *Programa de fizică pentru clasele a VI-a şi a VII-a.* Bucharest, 1958, 26 p.; *Programa de fizică pentru clasele VIII–XI.* Bucharest, 1960, 54 p.; *Programa de ştiinţe naturale pentru clasele V–VII.* Bucharest, 1958, 42 p.; *Programa de ştiinţe naturale pentru clasele VIII–XI.* Bucharest, 1960, 40 p.; *Programa de chimie pentru clasa a VII-a.* Bucharest, 1958, 15 p.; *Programa de limba germană pentru clasele V–VII.* Bucharest, 1958, 15 p.; *Programa de limba franceză pentru clasele V–VII.* Bucharest, 20 p.; *Programa de limba franceză pentru clasele VIII–XI.* Bucharest, 1960, 29 p.; *Programa de limba engleză pentru clasele V–VII.* Bucharest, 1958, 22 p.; *Programa de limba engleză pentru clasele VIII–XI.* Bucharest, 1960, 35 p.; *Programa de noţiuni de teoria literaturii, clasa a VIII-a.* Bucharest, 1960, 20 p.; *Programa de desen pentru clasele V–VII.* Bucharest, 1958, 10 p.

Educational Reform Act (on which the present educational system is based).

Table 6.—Percentage distribution of time allotted to humanities, natural sciences, and other disciplines in the secondary schools, by type of school: 1910, 1928, and 1948

Year	Type of secondary school	Percentage of time allotted to—			
		Total	Humanities	Natural sciences	Other disciplines
1910	Classical	100.0	83.0	7.1	9.9
1910	Modern	100.0	65.1	25.0	9.9
1910	*Réal* (Science)	100.0	50.8	36.6	12.6
1928	(1)	100.0	59.8	26.4	13.8
1948	(1)	100.0	44.7	45.3	10.0

SOURCE OF DATA: Stanciu Stoian. "Principiile şcolii democratice şi realizarea lor în Republica Populară Romînă" (The Principles of the Democratic School and Their Realization in the Rumanian People's Republic). *Revista de Pedagogie.* Bucharest, VII:9:9, September 1958.

[1] No distinction made in source as to type of secondary school.

But although an ever-increasing importance has been given to the physical and natural sciences since the 1948 educational reform, the foundations underlying the schools of general education have come under severe criticism. Among other changes provided by the 1956 decision was one for reconstruction of the curricula and syllabi in accordance not only with the extended school period but also with the new ideas about polytechnical education. The 4-year elementary schools, for example, thus aim at teaching pupils to read and write effectively and at developing their thinking and speech. Subjects taught in the first four grades include Rumanian, Russian, history, geography, arithmetic, elementary physics, chemistry, biology, calligraphy, drawing, singing, physical education, and shop. The next three grades emphasize developing the pupils' ability to express themselves orally and in writing through intensified teaching of the subjects taught in the first four grades. Pupils in these last three grades are expected, however, to supplement their program by another modern language such as English, French, or German. They are also taught social and natural sciences "in the spirit of materialist-dialectical concepts." Mathematics is emphasized: arithmetic, plane and solid geometry, trigonometry, and elementary algebra all appear in the curriculum.

High school pupils have an even more intensified program, including the compulsory study of the following subjects: Rumanian and Rumanian literature, Latin, national and world history, philosophy (elements of Marxism-Leninism, psychology, logic), elements of political economy, mathematics (elementary algebra, theory of equations with a single unknown, elementary and analytical geometry, trigonometry, differential and integral calculus), astronomy, physics, chemistry, natural sciences, physical geography, economics and political geography, national geography, drawing, music and history of music, physical education, practical shop work, and practical work in production.

Table 7.—Number of hours per week, per subject, in the Rumanian-language, 7-year schools of general education, by grade: 1958–59

Subject	Grade							Remarks
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Total	23	23	24	26	28	30	30	
Rumanian language and literature	12	12	9	7	5	5	4	
History								
Ancient	0	0	0	0	} 2	0	0	
Middle Ages	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
Modern and contemporary	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	
Rumanian	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	
Constitution	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
Russian	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	
English (or French or German)	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	Elective.
Mathematics	5	5	5	5	0	0	0	
Arithmetic	0	0	0	0	4	2	0	
Elementary algebra	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	
Elementary geometry	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	
Physics	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	
Chemistry	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	
Natural sciences	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	
Botany	0	0	0	0	2 (3)	0	0	2 in villages; 3 in cities.
Zoology	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	
Anatomy, human physiology, and hygiene	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	
Agricultural subjects and practical work (villages)	0	0	0	0	4 (3)	4	4	
Elementary subjects on industrial production and shop (cities)	0	0	0	0	4 (3)	4	4	In grade 5 in cities, only 3 hours of shop.
Geography	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	
Elements of physical geography and of the continents: Africa, Oceania, and the Antarctica	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	
Geography of continents: Europe, Asia, and America	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	
Rumanian	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	
Drawing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	
Calligraphy	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	
Music	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	Emphasis on singing in grades 1-4.
Physical education and sport	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	Allotted class hours only. [Extracurricular-activities time not counted.]
Practical work	1	1	2	2	0	0	0	
Guidance	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	
Chorus	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	In all three classes, given 2 hours once in 2 weeks.

SOURCE OF DATA: Gazeta Învățămîntului, Bucharest, Apr. 24, 1959, p. 2 ("Curriculum for the Rumanian-language, 7-year schools of general education").

The new curricula were constructed under principles which were to:

- ★encompass the volume of theoretical knowledge and habits of practice work required for the multilateral training of pupils
- ★observe the general principles of education
- ★divide the subjects in accordance with the method of concentrated teaching and with the students' capacities for understanding
- ★contribute to the formation of the scientific conception of the world
- ★aid pupils in their dialectical-materialistic interpretation of natural phenomena and social life
- ★contribute to the pupils' education in the spirit of patriotism and proletarian internationalism
- ★assure a correlation among the assigned subjects
- ★be in concordance with the textbooks.[14]

The measures adopted immediately after enactment of the Decision of 1956 affected the substance of the curricula in the upper grades to a larger extent than they did in the lower grades. This was particularly true of grades 9 and 11, which are divided into a science or *réal* section (*secție reală*) and a humanities section (*secție umanistică*). The percentage of time allocated to the natural sciences has been increased in the *réal* section of these grades over that shown in table 6 for the 1948 secondary school as a whole. The 1957 figures are the following:

Section	*Percentage of time in—*		
	Natural sciences	*Social sciences*	*Other fields*
Science (réal)	47.0	40.6	12.4
Humanities	42.5	46.1	11.4

SOURCE OF DATA: Stanciu Stoian. "Principiile școlii democratice și realizarea lor în Republica Populară Romînă" (The Principles of the Democratic School and Their Realization in the Rumanian People's Republic), *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VII:9:11, September 1958.

The results of the first 2 years (1956–58) seem to have been somewhat disappointing, especially in regard to the State's desire to bring about a closer connection between school and life and to strengthen the "patriotic" education of the pupils. A lengthened schooling period and a concomitant overloading of the curricula led to overburdening pupils and teachers alike, as well as to a general decline in the standard of instruction and learning. To eliminate these shortcomings the Ministry of Education established a Special Commission in May 1958. It was entrusted with the task of studying the various causes of the deficiencies and to propose measures for their remedy. In light of its findings and of the decisions of the plenary meetings of the Central Committee of The Rumanian Workers' Party of June 9-13 and November 26-28, 1958, the curricula and syllabi of the schools of general education were revised. They were applied for the first time during the 1959–60 academic year. Special consideration was given to the 7-year schools, envisioned as becoming universal, free, and compulsory by the beginning of the Five-Year Plan (1961–65). The majority of the graduates of these schools are expected to enter the field of production. To achieve this aim the number of hours has been reduced, a series of minor subjects has been deemphasized, and systematic practical work in industry and agriculture has been introduced into the curricula of the 7-year schools.

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[14] *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VI:9:[illegible], September 1957.

The 1958 curriculum aims primarily to bring about a greater correlation between school and industrial and agricultural productive units and to eliminate the overburdening of the pupils through a substantial reduction in the number of hours per week devoted to academic and extracurricular activities. In the new 7-year schools pupils are gradually trained for labor and they perform a number of tasks, consistent with their age and capacity, in the fields of industrial or agricultural production, depending upon the school's location.

In the villages, pupils of grades 5–7 devote 4 hours per week to practical work in agriculture; in the cities, they receive training in industrial production. Pupils of grade 5 have 3 hours of shop per week; those of grades 6 and 7, 4 hours. In addition, all pupils of grades 5–7 devote 2 weeks of their summer vacation to agricultural work in the villages and to industrial labor in the cities.

Pupils of the first four grades have a less extensive program in practical work. In grades 1 and 2 they devote 1 hour a week, and in grades 3 and 4, 2 hours, to simple manual work that aims to develop respect for and inclination towards labor. The curricula provide for teaching physics, chemistry, mathematics, biology, and drawing in close cooperation with the pupils' practical work in industry and agriculture.

Beginning with 1959–60, the 7-year schools decreased the number of hours per week for academic and extracurricular activities, especially in grades 5, 6, and 7, as shown on page 48.

The reduction in the number of school hours despite the intensified practical work program was made possible on the one hand through incorporating in the regular curriculum a number of activities previously considered extracurricular, and, on the other, through deemphasizing subjects not necessarily related to production or deemed inconsistent with the mental capacities of the pupils. Thus the curriculum includes a number of hours devoted to guidance, the sports circles, and chorus; and eliminates or reduces the hours devoted to history or some of the natural sciences and geography. This is particularly true in grades 1–4. There history is taught within the framework of Rumanian language and literature and in the form of

Grade and Period	*Hours*	
	Village	*City*
1 and 2		
Before 1959–60	24	24
1959–60	23	23
3		
Before 1959–60	26	26
1959–60	24	24
4		
Before 1959–60	28	28
1959–60	26	26
5		
Before 1959–60	37	35
1959–60	28	28
6 and 7		
Before 1959–60	36	35
1959–60	30	30

SOURCE OF DATA: Angel Manolache. "Despre planurile de învăţămînt pentru şcoala de 7 ani" (Concerning the Curricula of the 7-Year School). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VIII:3:25, March 1959.

stories and explanatory lectures. Emphasis is no longer placed on ancient and medieval history, but on the "fundamental problems relating to an understanding of societal development."[15] The natural sciences, geography, mathematics, and most of the other disciplines are taught in close correlation with the pupils' practical work in industry and agriculture.

With the planned transition from the 7-year to the unitary 8-year school of general education, as decided by the Third Congress of the Party (1960), the curriculum has also undergone a number of fundamental changes. The subjects taught in the 7-year schools have been extended and revised by taking into account both the requirements of the State for developing the socialist economy and strengthening State power and also the pupils' mental and physical characteristics at each age level.

The total number of hours of instruction during the academic year is now 7,770 in the 8-year schools and 6,375 in the 7-year schools. Of these, 2,870 hours (36.93 percent) are devoted to the natural and physical sciences and practical work, 3,045 (39.18 percent) to the humanities, and 1,855 (23.88 percent) to subjects concerned with the "esthetical and physical education" of the pupils. Arithmetic and mathematics have been strengthened, and in grade 8 the addition of bookkeeping has been envisioned as a means of increasing the pupil's ability to apply his mathematical knowledge to concrete problems of economics. Physics and chemistry have been lengthened by one year, the hours increasing from 140 to 210 and from 70 to 140, respectively. The natural sciences are taught systematically, beginning with zoology in the fourth grade, followed by botany in the fifth, human anatomy and physiology in the sixth, and hygiene in the seventh.

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[15] SOURCE OF DATA: Angel Manolache. "Despre planurile de învăţămînt pentru şcoala de 7 ani" (Concerning the Curricula of the 7-Year School). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VIII:3:27, March 1959.

Of the 3,045 hours devoted during the academic year to the humanities (including Rumanian language and literature, world and national history, civics, Russian and a Western language), 1,960 (25.22 percent) are allocated to Rumanian language and literature. The objective of this course is not only to help pupils master their mother tongue but also, in the words of the President of the Higher Council of Schools (*Consiliul superior al şcolilor*), "to achieve the education of the pupils in the spirit of Communist ideology and morality."[16] The ideological content of the subjects is increased, particularly in grades 5 to 8. This is supplemented by the material in the history courses (ancient in grade 5, the Middle Ages in grade 6, modern and contemporary in grade 7, and national in grade 8) and the civic courses. The Russian language study has increased from 210 to 280 hours and study of a modern Western language (English, French, or German) from 140 to 210 hours. Although the latter is elective in the 7-year schools, it has become required in the 8-year schools. The "esthetical and physical education" of the pupils encompasses music (chorus), drawing, calligraphy, physical education, and sports.

The village 8-year schools have introduced "agriculture" as a required subject in grades 5 to 8. Within its framework, the pupils are taught about the soil and agrotechnology, the nature and use of fertilizers, the cultivation of grains, horticulture, plant protection, animal husbandry, and rudimentary facts about farm machinery and the organization of agricultural production.[17]

In comparison with the weekly hours of the 7-year schools,[18] those of the 8-year schools have increased somewhat. The curricular activities proper take up 24 hours weekly in grades 1, 2, and 3, 26 in grade 4, 29 in grade 5, 31 in grade 6, and 32 in grades 7 and 8. With the 6-day school week, this comes to 4 hours a day in the first three grades and 5 hours (once or twice a week, 6 hours) in the remaining ones.[19]

In the 7- and 8-year schools the natural and physical sciences are stressed primarily in combination with the students' practical work

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[16] Petre Drăgoiescu. "Caracterul unitar—organizatoric şi pedagogic—al şcolii de 8 ani" (The Unitary Organizational and Pedagogical Character of the Eight-Year School). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, X:7:5–9, July 1961.

[17] See section II of Decision No. 428, May 12, 1962, of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party and the Council of Ministers of the Rumanian People's Republic on the Development and Improvement of Agricultural Education in *Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne*. Bucharest, XI:14:102–24, May 23, 1962. For general instructions concerning teaching of "agriculture" in the 8-year schools of general education during academic year 1962–63, *see Gazeta Învăţămîntului* (Journal of Education), Bucharest, Sept. 14, 1962.

[18] See table 7.

[19] Petre Drăgoiescu, *op. cit.*

Table 8.—Number of 50-minute lessons per week in the secondary schools, by subject: 1960

Subject	Elementary secondary school			Middle secondary school						Total		Percent	
						Science section		Humanities section					
	Grade 5 *Age 11*	*6* *12*	*7* *13*	*8* *14*	*9* *15*	*10* *16*	*11* *17*	*10* *16*	*11* *17*	Science section	Humanities section	Science section	Humanities section
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Total	**28**	**30**	**30**	**35**	**36**	**37**	**36**	**37**	**35**	**231**	**230**	**100.0**	**100.1**
Rumanian language and literature	5	5	4	3	3	3	3	4	4	26	28	11.3	12.2
History	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	14	14	6.1	6.1
Constitution	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.4	0.4
Russian	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	4	18	19	7.8	8.3
English, French, or German	0	(2)	(2)	2	2	2	2	2	3	8	9	3.5	3.9
Latin	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	4	2	4	10	1.7	4.3
Political economy	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	2	2	0.9	0.9
Philosophy	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	2	2	0.9	0.9
Psychology and logic	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	1	1	0.4	0.4
Mathematics	4	4	4	5	5	6	6	2	2	34	26	14.7	11.3
Astronomy	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0.4	0.0
Physics	0	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	16	16	6.9	7.0
Chemistry	0	0	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	10	10	4.3	4.3
Natural science	[1]2/3	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	2	14	14	6.1	6.1
Knowledge of agriculture and of industrial production	3	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	11	11	4.8	4.9
Study of machines with practical application	0	0	0	2	2	3	3	3	3	10	10	4.3	4.3
Geography	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	14	14	6.1	6.1
Drawing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	7	5	3.0	2.2
Music	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0	6	6	2.6	2.6
Physical culture	3	3	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	16	16	6.9	7.0
Collective sports or choral singing	0	0	0	2	2	2	(2)	2	(2)	6	6	2.6	2.6
Choral singing	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	1.3	1.3
"Educative hour"	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	7	3.0	3.0

SOURCE OF DATA: UNESCO. *Preparation of General Secondary School Curricula* (Publication No. 216). Geneva: UNESCO, International Bureau of Education, 1960. p. 378.

NOTE: Figures in parentheses indicate that the course is elective. No difference exists between the syllabi for boys and those for girls.

[1] In the country, 2 hours; in the towns, 3.

requirement. In the secondary cycle of the schools of general education, however, these sciences receive a constantly increasing emphasis (see table 8). Students in grades 10 and 11 of the science (*réal*) section have an intensive program in most of the sciences. All high school students (grades 8 through 11) must also devote a number of hours weekly to practical work in agriculture or industry, depending upon the school's location.[20]

Russian is required from the fifth grade on, with 2 hours weekly. This means that all graduates of the future universal and compulsory elementary schools will have studied Russian for at least 4 years. A second foreign language—English, French, or German—is required from the sixth grade on.

The social sciences in general and their individual fields in particular are stressed primarily in the upper grades. Although the "patriotic" education of children in the lower grades is pursued throughout the teaching of all subjects—especially Rumanian language and literature, Russian, history, the Rumanian constitution (grade 7)—since 1956 the high school curriculum has provided for two new required subjects: "elements of Marxism-Leninism" and "elements of political economy." Both are envisioned as "raising the theoretical level of the students" and inculcating in them a feeling of "socialist patriotism" and "proletarian internationalism."[21] A new project for teaching "scientific socialism" in grade 11 calls for a yearly program of 62 hours. Of these, 51 will be devoted to the following topics:

Topic	*Number of hours*
★Aim and significance of the course in Marxism-Leninism: the revolutionary theory of the working class	2
★Dialectical materialism	11
★Historical materialism	3
★Classes and the class struggle: the historical role of the proletariat	3
★Social consciousness and its forms	4
★Marxism-Leninism on the revolutionary party of the working class; the Rumanian Workers' Party as a Marxist-Leninist Party	4
★Socialist revolution: the historical-international significance of the "Great Socialist October Revolution" and the people's democratic revolution in Rumania	5
★Marxist-Leninist teachings on the dictatorship of the proletariat; the people's democratic State as a form of the dictatorship of the proletariat	5
★Alliance of the working class with the working peasantry under the leadership of the working class	3

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[20] For details on practical work in general and on polytechnical education in particular, see p. 54ff.

[21] See also chapter VIII of this bulletin.

Topic	*Number of hours*
★Marxist-Leninist teachings about the national and the national-colonial problem and the Marxist-Leninist solution of the national problem in the Rumanian People's Republic	4
★Socialist patriotism as the driving force in the development and consolidation of the socialist order in Rumania	2
★Marxist-Leninist teaching about war and peace	2
★The inevitable victory of socialism in the entire world[22]	3

The indoctrination process in the schools of general education forms an integral part of every discipline, whether in the social or the physical and natural sciences. Whatever the subject, pupils are constantly reminded of the "activities of the Communist Party in behalf of the people" and of contributions of the State in the "building of socialism."

Examples in all subjects portray the "miserable past under the bourgeois-landlord regime" and depict industrialization and collectivization as the great achievement of the Party. In mathematical subjects, for example, much of the data relates to the comparative yields of capitalist versus socialist production methods. The economic and scientific attainments of the Western "decadent" world are often contrasted with the socialist economic and scientific attainments—characterized as "revolutionary advances"—under the Soviet Union's leadership. The children's attachment to the working class, the Party, and the USSR is nurtured particularly in the teaching of history[23] and the social sciences in general. The Soviet Union is portrayed as helping the development of the people's democracies and protecting them from "the danger of possible attacks by the forces of imperialism." Students are "informed" about the "reactionary essence of cosmopolitanism," which is said to be revealed "by formalism in art, overestimation of Western technology, and minimization or negation of the achievements of the USSR."

Although the natural and physical sciences and the social studies receive paramount importance in the curriculum, the other subjects are not neglected. The curriculum provides for a number of hours in calligraphy, drawing, music, chorus singing, guidance, and physical education and sports. The latter are especially enhanced by providing for 2 hours each in grades 1–2 and 7–11, and for 3 hours in grades 3–6. Physical education is a required course in all grades, including those in higher education.[24] In addition to calisthenics and gymnastics and such popular sports as swimming, soccer, and skating, an ever-greater attention is being paid to hiking and excursions. At the end of the academic year, special sports competitions are organized under the auspices of the Ministry of Education, with the winners and all students excelling in any sport receiving coveted prizes and medals.[25]

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[22] *Gazeta Învăţămîntului* (Journal of Education), Bucharest, Sept. 11, 1959, p. 6.

[23] For example, see Eliza Bichman *and* Constantin Dinu, "Educarea dragostei şi a devotamentului faţă de clasa muncitoare şi faţă de partid în cadrul predării istoriei" (The Training of Love and Devotion Toward the Working Class and the Party Within the Framework of History Teaching). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, X:4:63–76, April 1961. See also p. 179ff.

[24] See Decree No. 1146 Regarding the Requirement to Include in the Curriculum of All the School Grades of a Number of Hours in Physical Education. *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 107, Oct. 30, 1951. p. 1080–81.

Guidance and counseling receive increasing importance in the upper grades of the elementary schools. Discipline plays a very important role in educating the children of Rumania for the "building of the new socialist society." To govern their conduct in and out of school, the Ministry of Education has issued a "code of behavior for elementary and high school students." In effect to some extent also before the 1948 Educational Reform and similar to one used in the Soviet Union,[26] this code makes it the duty of every student to:

1. Acquire in a thorough and conscientious manner the body of knowledge offered by the school in order to become an enlightened and conscientious citizen useful to the working people and the Rumanian Nation.
2. Attend school regularly and not arrive late at classes.
3. Walk carefully in the streets, streetcars, busses, etc., observing all the traffic rules.
4. Be clean when he comes to school and take care of his clothes and books.
5. Maintain cleanliness and order at the bench, in the classroom, and in the school.
6. Enter the class as soon as the bell rings, take his place at the bench, and not leave it except with the permission of the teacher or professor.
7. Sit upright during the lesson, listen attentively to the teacher's explanations and the other pupils' answers, and not talk or let his attention stray to other things.
8. Have a notebook in which the assignments given by the teacher or professor for the next lesson should be carefully entered.
9. Prepare the lessons with care.
10. Salute the teacher or professor and the director by standing up when they enter or leave the classroom.
11. Stand at attention when he is questioned and sit down only with the permission of the teacher or of the professor; raise his hand if he wishes to answer or ask a question.
12. Listen always to the advice and suggestions of the teacher or professor and to that of his counselor or school director.
13. Pay respect to the director of the school, to the teachers or professors, by greeting them upon meeting them.

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[25] Decision No. 59 Regarding the Organization of Certain Activities in Physical Education and Sports Within the Framework of the School Units. In Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1957 1 Ianuarie–28 Februarie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1957. p. 114–16.

[26] *Education in the USSR.* U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1957. p. 64–65.

14. Behave modestly and in a respectful and disciplined manner in the school, at home, on the street, and in public places.
15. Use no coarse or offending expressions that belittle others, as well as the ones that use them. Commit no act that would lower his dignity as a student.
16. Protect the property of the school, and respect public property—the wealth of the working people.
17. Be attentive to and considerate of old people, as well as of the younger ones, and be ready to give aid to the aged, the sick, and invalids.
18. Help parents around the house and take care of younger brothers and sisters.
19. Have a comrade-like behavior towards his colleagues, be friendly and sincere, take part in collective life, being ready to support the collective and to seek, on his part, the aid of the collective.
20. Request the approval of the school administration for participation in any sport competitions or excursions not organized by the school or in the event of leaving the locality.
21. Attend only those shows, institutions, or public demonstrations which have been recommended by the school administration or for which permission has been given.
22. Abide by the rules of the dormitories.
23. Uphold the honor of his school, of his class, as well as his personal honor.[27]

Misbehaving or delinquent children are punished severely. For one thing, pupils receiving a grade below "5" in conduct cannot be promoted and must repeat the entire year regardless of other grades received.

Polytechnization

Communist educators trace the basic principles underlying polytechnical education to Marx, Engels, and Lenin. According to Marx, "polytechnism," as it is often called, is "an education which, in the case of every child over a certain age, *combines labor with instruction and physical culture*,[28] not only as a means for increasing social production, but as the only way of producing fully developed beings."[29] In accordance with the Leninist principle of "the unity of theory with practice," polytechnical education forms an integral part of the Communist education of youths and aims to equip them with "the knowledge of the scientific foundations of the principal means of production."[30]

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[27] Decision No. 22065/1950. *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 16, Feb. 22, 1950. p. 249–50.

[28] Italics supplied.

[29] Maurice J. Shore. *Soviet Education. Its Psychology and Philosophy*. New York: Philosophical Library, 1947. p. 52. See also p. 42–69 and 227–40.

[30] See article by Stanciu Stoian in *Contemporanul*, Bucharest, Feb. 22, 1957.

For all practical purposes, polytechnical education is work-experience education that combines manual work and academic study. Reminiscent of John Dewey's concept of "learning by doing," these activities, resulting in the production of useful goods and services, are expected also to serve as a means for molding the individual's social and intellectual development.

The problem of transforming education along polytechnical lines has been one of the main preoccupations of the Rumanian People's Democratic State during the past few years.[31] In Rumania, as in the Soviet Union and the other "people's democracies" where the system of polytechnization has been introduced,[32] the demands of the national economy seem to have outweighed the educational requirements for a well-rounded development of the individual. In 1948 the Rumanian Government nationalized the basic means of production, setting up ambitious industrialization programs; and it gradually collectivized the land. It began to find itself greatly hampered, however, by the economy's initial backwardness and primarily agricultural nature and by the chronic shortage of skilled labor. Directed to the task of overcoming these difficulties, the educational system was gradually transformed along polytechnical lines.

Certain elements of polytechnical education were introduced in the schools of general education soon after the 1948 Educational Reform Act, but the basic transformation towards polytechnization came after the Second Congress of the Party (1955), especially after the implementation of Decision No. 1380 of 1956, relating to reorganization of the schools of general education.

The general objectives of polytechnical education, according to a resolution of the Collegium of the Ministry of Education,[33] are expected to be achieved by the following means:

> ★. . . teaching physics, natural sciences, geography, and drafting [for] understanding by the students of the scientific basis of production

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[31] The idea of manual labor and practical work in industrial and agricultural production as an integral part of the curriculum is not entirely novel in Rumanian education. In the pre-1955 period (especially before World War II), such work pursuits were considered as supplements to education proper; now, however, they have assumed paramount importance. Practical work requirements were established by Decision No. 1283 /1954 of the Council of Ministers (see *Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne*, Bucharest, No. 42, July 31, 1954.

[32] In Czechoslovakia and Bulgaria: Article in *East Europe*, VIII:6:46–48, June 1959. Soviet Zone of Germany: *Education in the Soviet Zone of Germany* (Bulletin 1959, No. 26), by Paul S. Bodenman. U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1959. 162 p. Russia: *Education and Professional Employment in the U.S.S.R.*, by Nicholas DeWitt. National Science Foundation. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1961. p. 78-90. *Education in the U.S.S.R.* (Bulletin 1957, No. 14). U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1957. 226 p. *Soviet Commitment to Education: Report of the First Official U.S. Education Mission to the U.S.S.R.* (Bulletin 1959, No. 16). U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1959. 135 p. *Soviet Education Programs* (Bulletin 1960, No. 17), by William K. Medlin *and others*, U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1960. p. 94–98.

[33] The Collegium discussed general problems relating to polytechnization of schools at its meeting of Jan. 29, 1957. See text of its conclusions in *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Feb. 22, 1957.

★organizing laboratory work, field measurements, and other practical applications within the framework of teaching

★teaching manual work (shop) in grades 1 through 4, and practical work in shops and experimental lots in grades 5 through 7

★organizing practical work with electrotechnical machines and in the foundations of agriculture in grades 8 through 11

★organizing field trips and visits in order to familiarize students directly with the work in industrial and agricultural enterprises

★organizing practical and productive work in industry and agriculture

★equipping students with knowledge, understanding, and practical habits within the framework of technical matters.

The first experiments in polytechnical education were conducted during 1955–56 in eight schools selected by the Ministry of Education, of which three were under the supervision and guidance of the Institute of Pedagogical Sciences of Bucharest. Further experiments were conducted in 100 schools during 1956–57, 50 selected by the Ministry of Education and 42 participating voluntarily.

Initially, many teachers confused the principles of polytechnical education with the idea of manual labor and shop work "as practiced in the past," or identified it with the principle of "polyvocationalism."[34] Instructors teaching the scientific foundations and theoretical elements of the various branches of production failed to secure cooperation from the master craftsmen entrusted with developing necessary habits for handling tools and carrying out production processes. Furthermore, in their drive to achieve practical results in production, teachers seemed to have forgotten "that the principal aim of such labor was the Communist education of youth."[35]

Also, schools were insufficiently equipped for the technical program, not only because the laboratories and workshops were too few, but also because the teachers were poorly qualified.[36]

The blame for the poor outcome of the experiments was placed primarily on the educational institutions and the controlling organs of the various enterprises.[37] The General Directorate of the Schools of General Education and the Institute of Pedagogical Sciences, for example, were cited for failing to explain the aims and functions of polytechnical education and for failing to elaborate precise methodological instructions to guide teachers in applying the new polytechnical approach in the classroom. Fault was found with the organization of field trips to industrial and agricultural enterprises and with the organization of technical circles in the schools and Pioneer homes. The controlling organs were accused of failing to follow up on how polytechnical education is brought about and of not cooperating sufficiently with local enterprises for support of the schools of general education.

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[34] Stanciu Stoian, *op. cit.*

[35] *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VIII:3:6, March 1959.

[36] Stanciu Stoian, *op. cit.*

[37] *Conclusions of the Collegium of the Ministry of Education*, *op. cit.*

Serious efforts are being made at present to strengthen cooperation between the schools of general education and the industrial and agricultural units. The latter, together with the education sections of the people's councils and with the school principals, are expected to cooperate more closely than before in equipping schools with shops, audiovisual aids, laboratories, and plots of ground for agricultural experiments.

In 1960 about 450 of the 900 urban 7-year schools and 237 of the 302 urban secondary schools had some type of workshop. Many workshops, however, were ill-equipped, lacking both material and tools.[38] Practice teaching in production proper is gradually being extended to more and more schools. During 1961–62, 105 schools offered such training. Of these, 14 were located in Bucharest. In terms of occupational field, 30 of the 105 were in agriculture.[39] Where no opportunities exist for teaching technical sciences in production, efforts are made to provide, under school auspices, "technical cabinets" (*cabinete tehnice*) that will contain the audiovisual and technical tools necessary for proper instruction.[40]

Setting up the agricultural experiment lots is the responsibility of the executive committees of the urban and village people's councils.[41] Theoretically, they are to be set up for all kindergartens, schools of general education, and teacher-training institutions. Actually, relatively few have such lots with the dimensions and equipment prescribed by the educational authorities. Most lots seem to be ill-equipped and rather small. Their fundamental purpose is to provide experimental opportunities in the natural sciences and to stimulate development of constructive habits in the growing of plants and the raising of animals. The produce and animals raised on the lots are exempt from taxation and produce-delivery requirements and they are used primarily to improve the children's nutrition and health.

The plan for adopting polytechnical methods of education received added impetus when the Ministry of Education instructed that beginning with the 1958–59 academic year all pupils from the second grade on (later, the first) must devote—over and above their regular weekly assignments in shop and practical work—a part of their summer vacation to practical work in industrial or agricultural production. This summer practical work is usually performed during June. It is envisioned as supplementing and completing the children's education and preparing them for future employment. Furthermore, it is expected to contribute not only to their physical, mental, and polytechnical education, but also to their "patriotic" moral training. Communist sources constantly emphasize that practical work in production is the foundation of the socialist education of youth and that, in Lenin's words, "only by working together with the workers and peasants is it possible to become true Communists."[42]

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[38] *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Aug. 8, 1960. p. 2–4.

[39] *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, XI:2:73, February 1962; XI:5:18, May 1962.

[40] N. Dinu. "Organizarea cabinetelor tehnice in şcolile de cultură generală" (The Organization of Technical Cabinets in the Schools of General Education). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, XI:2:73–80, February 1962.

[41] See Decision No. 1122 "Relating to the Establishment of Experimental School Lots" in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii*, 1954 1 Iulie–31 August. Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1954. p. 90–91.

In the course of practical work, the pupils are expected to develop a "positive attitude toward labor," to strengthen their willpower for solving problems and overcoming difficulties, and to gain a feeling of self-confidence and belief in their creative capacities. Moreover, they are expected to develop respect for public property through the careful handling of machines and tools and through the economical use of raw materials and natural resources.

New programs relating to practical work in industrial and agricultural production stress that as far as possible the requirements for polytechnical education should be adjusted to the age and capacity of the children as well as to the available facilities of the schools, as determined by their location. Care is taken to organize the work in a systematic manner in order to give pupils an opportunity to acquaint themselves gradually with the various phases of production. Practical work is expected to assume a "pronounced collective character" and to be stimulated by various incentives and competitive devices.

In line with these general principles, pupils in grades 2 and 3 of the village schools perform simple tasks like taking care of the trees lining the streets, destroying harmful pests and insects, and beautifying the school yard. Pupils in grades 5 and 6 carry out a number of useful activities in agriculture and animal husbandry. They help cultivate cereals, harvest crops, and feed and mind cattle and other domestic animals. High school students perform all of these tasks at a higher level under the auspices of the tractor-and-machine stations and the State and collective farms.

The nature of the practical work in the city schools is determined by the facilities available there and in the community. In schools having no workshops or laboratories, the fifth- and sixth-grade pupils prepare educational materials for various disciplines, especially the natural and physical sciences and chemistry. These materials usually are for herb, insect, and rock collections. Pupils may also fulfill their practical work requirement by doing simple jobs in the various shops and enterprises of the community. High school students carry out their polytechnical education assignments in metallurgical, chemical, and mining enterprises, or in construction yards.[43]

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[42] V. I. Lenin. *Collected Works*, vol. 31 (Russian ed.), p. 275, as quoted in "Practica în producţie, mijloc important pentru pregătirea multilaterală a elevilor" (Practical Work in Production, an Important Means for the Multilateral Training of Pupils). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VIII:3:5, March 1959. See also Anye Coman, Dora Gîtlan, *and* Rea-Silva Constantinescu. "Unele probleme ale educării atitudinii comuniste faţă de muncă la elevi în condiţiile instruirii practice în producţie" (Some Problems of Training Communist Attitudes Toward Labor in Children Under the Conditions of Practical Work in Production). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest: XI:4:16–32, April 1962.

Lately, increasing attention has been paid to implementing the polytechnical program as smoothly and as effectively as possible. Advance plans are made for selecting the shops and enterprises where the practical work program is to be carried out. The leaders responsible for effectuating the program, both in schools and shops, are appointed at an early date. They plan all the activities related to practical work: selecting the shops and enterprises, keeping attendance records, and evaluating the pupils' performance in production.

In the selection of shops and enterprises, school officials are theoretically guided by the following considerations: (a) nature of the operations and work processes, (b) availability of working places, (c) accessibility of equipment and tools, (d) applicability of the technical or industrial training to the students' study program, and (e) existing conditions of safety and health.

The actual practical work program in production begins with an excursion to the designated plant. Here, the students are given an opportunity to familiarize themselves with the general scientific principles underlying the operation of the plant, the goods produced, the organization and methods employed in production, and the plant's importance in the national economy. Attendance and performance records are kept in special roll books, either by the instructors or by the master craftsmen, under whose guidance the pupils perform their practical work.

It is still too early to assess correctly the success or failure of the polytechnization program. So far, no objective study has been made and no definitive reports have been issued on the effects of the new measures taken along these lines or on the extent to which they have contributed to the development of the students' interest in science, technology, and production. No evidence is at hand as yet regarding the effect of polytechnization on changing the students' attitude toward life, society, and property. Whatever the long-run consequences of polytechnization, however, it is safe to assume that in education, as in all other segments of Communist society, the interests of the State have been given preference over the interests of the individual.

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[43] Detailed instructions for implementing the 2-week continuous practical work programs are issued well before the end of the school year. See, for example, *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, Bucharest, May 12, 1961, p. 6, and the Mar. 23, 1962 issue, p. 6, concerning the practical work programs for 1961 and 1962, respectively.

Textbooks and Teaching Materials

The Ministry of Education selects and approves each academic year's textbooks and teaching materials for the various grades and subjects.[44] The books and the materials represent a particularly important means for disseminating the Party's views in both elementary and high schools.

During the period immediately after the Educational Reform Act of 1948 many textbooks were either provisional or were translated almost verbatim from textbooks in the corresponding grades of Soviet schools.[45] Following the transitional period, however, Rumanian authors or "author collectives" have been permitted to follow a more "national" approach by taking into consideration the "positive" achievements of the educational system of pre-World War II Rumania.

Basically, the overall orientation of the textbooks is a "realist-scientific" one, based on the principles of Marxism-Leninism.

Results from various nationwide competitions, organized by the Ministry of Education, determine which textbooks are to be used and how they are to be prepared. Whenever the need arises the Ministry issues detailed instructions relating to the type of textbooks to be prepared, the subjects to be covered, and the grades and school levels for which the textbooks are envisioned. After the Council of Ministers has approved the instructions they are published in most Party newspapers and in all professional journals. The accepted manuscripts are then published by the Didactical and Pedagogical State Publishing House (*Editura de stat didactică şi pedagogică*), established in 1951. At first the edition is a limited one for experimental use in a few carefully selected schools. These schools are normally supervised by the Institute of Pedagogical Sciences (*Institutul de ştiinţe pedagogice*). Following any revisions introduced in response to suggestions of the Institute and the educators first using them, the textbooks are then published in a definitive edition established by the educational authorities.

Written in accordance with an outline in the syllabus prepared by the Department of Schools of the Ministry of Education for each subject and grade, the textbooks are clear and brief, with passages that are to be noted particularly appearing in italics. Figurative and emotional devices are frequent. New terms or foreign words appearing for the first time are explained. Small, mostly black and white, pictures or etchings further enhance the pupils' interest. Many of the natural science textbooks contain conservatively produced, but instructionally effective, color plates. Geographies often have separate looseleaf maps. Most of the textbooks are divided into major parts or sections broken into chapters numbered consecutively from start to finish of the book. Each part and chapter normally end with concluding remarks or recapitulative questions.

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[44] For a list of the 1954–55 textbooks see Ministerul Învăţămîntului, *Lista manualelor valabile în anul şcolar 1954–1955 pentru şcolile elementare, şcolile de şapte ani, şcolile medii* (*de zece ani*), *şcolile pedagogice de învăţători şi de educatoare* (List of Textbooks To Be Used During the 1954–1955 Academic Year in the Elementary, Seven-Year, Secondary—Ten-Year—Schools and in the Teacher-Training Schools for Men and Women). Bucharest: Editura de stat didactică şi pedagogică, 1954. 38 p.

[45] For example, the astronomy textbook for the science (*réal*) section of grade 11, printed as late as 1960, is a translation of a Russian textbook by B. A. Vorontsov-Velyaminov. See appendix A.

The problem of textbooks again came to the fore following the 1956 reorganization of the schools of general education. On April 1, 1957, a collegium of the Ministry of Education held a meeting to discuss questions related to the new textbooks that were needed to implement the curricula and syllabi called for by the newly extended schooling period and the directives of the Second Party Congress concerning transformation of the educational system along polytechnical lines.[46] To make certain that schools would have necessary textbooks for general application of the 11-year education sequence, the Pedagogical and Didactical State Publishing House drew up a 4-year plan stipulating that by 1959–60 all grades and all subjects would be supplied with new and original textbooks.[47]

Considerable strides seem to have been made in Rumanian textbooks since 1956, but their number and quality apparently leave much to be desired. Some seem overloaded with information much beyond the pupils' understanding, the language of others is unclear,[48] and still others have a poor typographical appearance. Typical examples of such faults, cited in certain Rumanian publications, were the texts for high school psychology, eighth-year physics, eighth-year literary theories, and fifth-year arithmetic.[49]

Serious efforts are consistently being made to bring about greater concordance between syllabi and textbooks and to make the distribution system more effective. Although having to abide strictly by the specified textbooks, the teachers are encouraged to reveal their classroom experiences with them. Many of the educational journals, especially the *Revista de Pedagogie* and the *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, carry regular columns on this subject.

Considerable strides seem to have been made, beginning with the 1960–61 academic year, when textbooks were distributed free of charge to pupils in grades 1–7 (8). Plans are being made for the free distribution of all school supplies as well. The textbooks remain, however, the property of the State.

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[46] See text of the collegium's findings and conclusions in *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, Bucharest, Apr. 19, 1957.

[47] The elementary and high school textbooks published for 1956–57 totaled 235. Plans called for 312 and 402 textbooks for 1957–58 and 1958–59, respectively. *Ibid.*

[48] *Ibid.* See also I. Luga *and* V. Cojocan, "Unele probleme cu privire la conţinutul manualelor şcolare" (Some Problems Concerning the Content of Textbooks). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, June 1960, p. 85–99.

[49] *Contemporanul*, Bucharest, Feb. 12, 1960, p. 2; *Scînteia*, Bucharest, May 6, 1959. For a partial list of textbooks used by the schools of general education since 1958–59 see appendix A.

The school authorities have been less successful in their plans for greater use of audiovisual aids in classroom teaching. Although the governmental agencies concerned with education have increased the production of documentary films and stills and of audiovisual equipment, their classroom use appears to be sporadic and unorganized.[50]

Occupying a central place in the teaching process, the general guidelines and ideas underlying the subject matter of the textbooks are those of Marxism-Leninism. While this is true of all subject matter, it is particularly stressed in the social sciences.[51]

History textbooks follow very closely the dialectical periodization of history, reflecting the stages of social class-property development as outlined by Marxist historiographers. Also the textbooks in political economy (those in grade 10, for example) offer a doctrinaire outline of Marxism-Leninism, emphasizing the stages of capitalist and socialist developments and the inevitability of a gradual world transition from capitalism through socialism to communism under the leadership of the USSR. All textbooks are constructed so as to incorporate not only the subject material proper but also material conducive to developing in the pupil's mind a "healthy attitude towards labor, a rationalistic concept of life, and a spirit of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism."

The superiority of the socialist system is "demonstrated" by portraying the achievements of the USSR and the people's democracies and the negative elements of the Western world. The United States of America is portrayed as the chief villain after World War II, while the Soviet Union is depicted as the leader in the struggle for peace and the people's liberation from colonialism and capitalist oppression. The United States is described as a country dominated by monopolies exploiting the workers, where the malfunctioning of the economy is matched only by the suppression of the Negro. Having become the strongest capitalist country, the United States, it is stressed, aims at world domination. For this purpose it launched the Truman doctrine, organized the NATO pact ("a direct tool for the preparation of a new World War against the USSR and the people's democracies") and other pacts, and established hundreds of bases around the socialist countries.[52]

The outbreak of World War II is attributed to the struggle of the imperialists for world domination. Following the attack on the Soviet Union in June 1941,[53] the war took on a liberating character due to the "struggle of the popular masses led by the communist parties in the capitalist States and to the struggle of the USSR". In the course of the conflict

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[50] In 1959 the National Film Archives (*Arhiva naţională de filme*) of Bucharest prepared *Catalogul adnotat al filmelor didactice, ştiinţifice şi educative* (Annotated Catalog of Didactical, Scientific, and Educational Films) to aid interested schools in selecting documentaries. Bucharest: Tipografia Invăţămîntului, 1959.

[51] Alexandre Cretzianu. *Captive Rumania. A Decade of Soviet Rule. op. cit.*, p. 214–19.

[52] History textbook for grade 10. See appendix A.

[53] This same textbook does not mention the Soviet-German Pact of August 1939.

> . . . the Soviet Union alone carried the entire brunt of the war against Hitlerite Germany and its European allies. During 1941–45 the leading circles of the USA and England wanted to get in contact with the leaders of Hitlerite Germany in order to enter into an agreement with them against the USSR. Only the heroism and bravery of the Soviet soldiers, officers, and peoples, only the crushing victories of the Soviet Army, decided the fate of the war and brought about the military defeat of the Hitlerite war machine.[54]

Rumanian history textbooks emphasize that the bombing of Hiroshima and Nagasaki was done by the American Air Force, and that the bombing itself (in the words of one of the textbooks) "had no military result whatsoever, hitting the peaceful population; and was condemned by the entire civilized world."[55]

Examinations and Grading[56]

The pupils' academic and extracurricular performance is of great interest, not only to their parents but also to the State. Both the examinations and the grading procedures are carefully outlined in instructions issued periodically by the Ministry of Education. Teachers are expected to test the pupil's performance in relation to that of his colleagues and to his ability, as well as to what is expected of him by the school authorities. His daily work is evaluated through oral recitations in class, homework assignments, occasional extemporaneous quizzes, and periodic examinations.

Promotion from all grades except 4, 7, and 11 is based on the pupil's cumulative record of daily work and the results of quarterly and year-end examinations. Pupils in grades 4, 7, and 11 are promoted on the basis of the cumulative record and the results of final standardized State examinations prepared by the central educational authorities. The grade 11 examination, crowning the completion of the entire cycle of the elementary-secondary program, is the so-called "maturity" or *bacalaureat* examination. Success in that examination entitles the pupil to a maturity or *bacalaureat* diploma, enabling him to take entrance examinations offered by the institutions of higher learning.

Graduation from grade 4 requires a successful written and oral examination in Rumanian (or in the native language) and arithmetic.

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[54] History textbook, *op. cit.*

[55] *Ibid.*

[56] The details here are based on Order No. 62 of Feb. 27, 1957 and Order No. 91 of Apr. 5, 1957, issued by the Ministry of Education for the 1957–58 academic year. For the text of these two Orders see the Mar. 1, 1957 and Apr. 12, 1957 issues of *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, respectively.

In addition to having to take the examinations required for passing from grade 4, pupils graduating from grade 7 have to take oral examinations in the following subjects: natural sciences, Rumanian geography, Rumanian history, and Rumanian constitution (civics). These examinations are given twice a year: once at the end of the academic year (June 5–15), and again at the beginning of the following academic year (September 5–12).

Assisted by a delegate teacher assigned by the educational section of the district (*raional*) or the urban people's council, the regular teacher of grade 4 conducts graduation examinations for her pupils. A commission conducts these examinations for grade 7 pupils.

The maturity (*bacalaureat*) examination[57] may be taken by all graduates of grade 11. Although both written and oral examinations are required in mathematics, Rumanian (or the native language) and Latin (for students taking the humanities course), only oral examinations are required in the following subjects: physics, chemistry, geography, foundations of Darwinism, Rumanian history, political economy, and Russian. The examinations are given by a commission of specialists whose head is appointed by the Ministry of Education. Candidates receiving a grade of "5" or better in all subjects are considered passed and are eligible for the *bacalaureat* diploma. The diploma itself lists all grades received in high school. Students holding this diploma may be given responsible positions in production or after fulfilling certain additional requirements they may attend an institution of higher learning. Candidates who fail the maturity examination may take it a second time within 2 years; those who fail it a second time or who do not appear for re-examination within the prescribed time limit must repeat the eleventh grade before applying again.

The maturity examinations in mathematics, physics, chemistry, and the natural sciences cover a wide range of topics. In chemistry, for example, candidates are examined in the following:

★atomic-molecular theory and general laws of chemistry
★determination of the molecular weight of substances in the gaseous state
★calculations for chemical reactions, using formulas and equations
★oxides, bases, acids, and salts (composition, nomenclature, and properties)
★hydrogen
★sulphur and its compounds
★nitrogen and its main compounds
★phosphorus, orthophosphoric acid, and the phosphates

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[57] The *bacalaureat* examination schedule, the general requirements, and a list of the subjects to be covered are published yearly well in advance of the examination date. For the 1961 examinations consult *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, Bucharest, Apr. 21, 1961.

- ★carbon and its inorganic compounds
- ★silicon, silicon dioxide, glass, and cement
- ★hydro-carbons (methane, ethylene, acetylene, and benzene)
- ★isomerism
- ★Butlerov's theory of the structure of organic compounds
- ★petroleum and its derivatives
- ★dry distillation of coal
- ★ethyl alcohol
- ★glycerine
- ★phenol
- ★formaldehyde
- ★formic acid
- ★acetic acid
- ★esters
- ★fats and soaps.

Candidates are also examined in the following (studied in grade 10): sugars, nitrogenous organic substances, periodic laws and the periodic table of the elements, atomic structure, electrolytic dissociation, metals (physical and chemical properties), alloys, sodium, potassium, calcium, aluminum, and iron.

Although the Rumanian schools followed the Soviet system of grading[58] for a relatively brief period, at present they follow the one used during the interwar period, i.e., the numbers "10" through "1", "10" being the highest and "1" the lowest mark. A mark of "5" is the minimum final grade required for passing. Marks are entered in the pupil's record book (*carnet de studii*), which is to be signed by his parents or guardians. His quarterly grade is established by considering the average of his marks during the quarter and on the written examination at the end of the quarter. The pupil's annual grade, on the other hand, is established by averaging his grades in the three quarters. Pupils who have received an average of "5" or above in all subjects are considered promoted. Those receiving grades below "5" in two subjects are given a chance to take another examination in these subjects during the period immediately preceding the beginning of the next academic year. Such pupils are referred to in Rumanian as *corigenţi*. Pupils receiving grades below "5" in three subjects or failing the examination for the second time are also considered as having failed and they must repeat the entire year. Drastic measures are in force against "misbehaving" or "delinquent" children, as revealed by the fact that those receiving a grade below "5" in conduct are considered as having failed and must repeat the entire year, irrespective of their subject-matter grades.

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[58] According to the Soviet system of grading in use during 1952–56, a mark of "5" was considered excellent, "4" good, "3" passing, "2" unsatisfactory, and "1" failure. (See Decision No. 1795/1952 of the Council of Ministers in *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 47, Sept. 16, 1952.)

Enrollment

The first comprehensive figures relating to various aspects of Rumanian education since the establishment of the Rumanian People's Republic were published in 1957. From that date on the Rumanian Government has published yearly statistical reports covering education, among other fields. The statistical data used for this section of the present bulletin were taken from the 1960 edition of those reports.[59]

Tables 9, 10, and 11 show enrollment figures for the schools of general education, by grade and sex.

An analysis of tables 9, 10, and 11 reveals the following facts:[60]

1. Between 1938–39 and 1948–49, the total number of children attending the schools of general education (grades 1–11) increased from 1,604,481 to 1,846,202, or 15.1 percent. The increase occurred in spite of the country's diminished territory resulting from the incorporation of Northern Bukovina and Bessarabia into the Soviet Union (June 1940). Following the 1948 educational reform, enrollment gradually declined until 1954–55, when it was 1,717,794. Beginning with the 1955–56 academic year, however, enrollment again began to increase, and by 1959–60 it had reached a high of 2,338,447—a 26.7 percent increase over the 1948–49 figures.
2. In terms of the pupils' distribution by grade, the changes taking place since the reform are comparatively greater. The number of children attending the higher grades of the schools of general education has increased steadily since 1938–39. In 1948–49, the number in grades 5–7 was 284,450, approximately two and a third times greater than 10 years earlier. By 1959–60, the figure had risen to 627,002, an increase of 342,557 (about 120 percent) over the 1948–49 level. The sharpest rise occurred after the 1957–58 academic year, the first academic year following the second reorganization of Rumania's educational system. At the same time the number of pupils in grades 8–11 gradually increased from 55,020 in 1948–49 to 203,044 in 1959–60. Of these, however, 78,654 were enrolled in evening sessions or correspondence courses.
3. Although a majority of the pupils in the lower grades live in rural areas (86.8 percent of the total number attending grades 1–4 in 1938–39, 85.7 percent in 1948–49, and 78.5 percent in 1959–60), the situation was reversed in the upper grades. Of the 29,004 pupils in grades 8–11 in 1938–39, only 801 (2.7 percent) were in rural areas; and in 1948–49, 353 out of 55,020 (only 0.64 percent). By 1959–60, this percentage had increased considerably, but was still only 10 percent (20,313 of the total number of 203,044 pupils) in these grades. Once again the greatest progress was achieved

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[59] *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 353–89. For statistical changes from 1959–60 through 1961–62 see appendix tables I and II.

[60] See footnote 44 of chapter II.

after the reform of 1956–57. As late as that year the proportion of rural youth in grades 8–11 was still only 4.2 percent (6,104 out of 144,947).

4. Although the number of pupils in the upper grades has approximately tripled since 1948, the percentage who continue their education through grades 8–11 is still relatively small, especially in rural areas. Of the 1,224,185 pupils in grades 1–4 in 1952–53 and who therefore were of the proper age for grades 8–11 in 1959–60, only 203,044, or 16.5 percent, were actually attending these grades. In the rural areas only 2 percent of the children of appropriate age (20,313 of a theoretically eligible 1,004,444) were actually in grades 8–11 in 1959–60.

5. It appears that especially in rural areas many pupils in grades 1–4 are older than those normally attending these grades. Although the rural population in age group 7–10[61] was only 847,814, a total of 1,034,726 were enrolled in grades 1–4 during the 1956–57 academic year. During the same year, when the entire cycle of the school of general education consisted of 10 grades, only 144,947 children (16.4 percent) attended grades 8–10 out of a potential of 881,434 in the corresponding age group of 14–16. Although the rural population in this age group was 601,873, only 6,104 (1.01 percent) of them were enrolled in grades 8–10. The situation had improved somewhat by 1959–60, when secondary schooling was again extended to grade 11. In that year 203,044 (16.8 percent) were enrolled in grades 8–11 out of a potential school-age population (14–17 years) of 1,206,720.[62] Of these, only 20,313 (10 percent) came from rural areas, even though the rural population in age group 14–17 was 816,565 (67.7 percent). The number of village girls attending the upper cycle of the secondary school was 7,784, or 1.86 percent of the 419,736 village girls in this age group, 3.83 percent of the total enrollment of 203,044, and 8.44 percent of the 92,260 girls enrolled in grades 8–11.

   (The ratios quoted above would be even smaller if only day school pupils were considered, since the enrollment figures for grades 5–10 (11) include all pupils registered in both the day school and the evening session. Available statistics do not differentiate between the two categories.)

6. The teacher-pupil ratio seems to have improved steadily. Between 1938–39 and 1948–49, 19,670 teachers were added in the schools of general education—a 42.5 percent increase, accompanied by an enrollment increase of only 15.1 percent. From 1948–49 to 1959–60, with a rise in enrollment of 26.7 percent, the number of teachers increased by 48.1 percent, from 66,105 to 97,907. This was reflected in a reduction of the average class size in the four lowest grades from 40 pupils per class in 1938–39 to 34 in 1948–49 and 28 in 1959–60.

7. The number of elementary and high schools increased from 13,865 in 1938–39 to 14,988 in 1948–49 and to 16,222 in 1958–59, only to decrease again—presumably due to consolidations—to 15,600 in 1959–60. Between 1948–49 and 1959–60 the number of 4-year schools decreased from 11,439 to 9,957; but the number of 7-year schools increased from 3,332 to 5,130, and the 11-year schools from 217 to 513 (almost double).[63]

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[61] Children enter first grade at age 7.

[62] The potential school-age population was actually higher, owing to the birth increase between 1956 and 1959.

[63] This figure includes evening schools for the "village and working youth." For the regional distribution of enrollment, schools, and teachers from 1955–56 through 1959–60, see *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R., 1960, op. cit., p. 358–61.*

Table 9.—Number of schools, pupils, graduates, and teachers in the day and evening sessions and correspondence courses of the schools of general education, by grade: 1938–39 and 1948–49 through 1959–60

[0 indicates that evening sessions and correspondence courses did not exist — indicates that source did not show any figures]

Item	1938–39	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Schools													
4-year	12,884	11,489	10,989	10,987	10,900	10,825	10,747	10,869	11,106	11,311	11,399	11,277	9,957
7-year	770	3,332	4,146	4,345	4,462	4,438	4,597	4,539	4,417	4,247	4,284	4,491	5,130
11-year [1]	211	217	219	224	232	257	301	343	370	405	433	454	513
Pupils													
Grades 1-4	1,456,367	1,506,732	1,444,963	1,378,120	1,335,508	1,224,185	1,196,339	1,171,753	1,189,100	1,296,074	1,375,012	1,452,086	1,508,401
Grades 5-7, total	119,110	284,450	344,794	399,867	430,224	448,166	467,935	442,285	413,925	418,249	443,967	511,657	627,002
Day session	*119,110*	*284,450*	*344,794*	*399,867*	*430,224*	*447,310*	*466,145*	*440,328*	*408,820*	*407,382*	*438,039*	*501,260*	*611,907*
Evening session	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*856*	*1,790*	*1,957*	*1,939*	*1,621*	*1,793*	*1,511*	*5,000*
Correspondence courses	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*3,166*	*9,246*	*4,135*	*8,886*	*10,095*
Grades 8-11, total	29,004	55,020	58,021	59,903	64,425	69,756	88,764	103,756	129,135	144,947	156,290	181,069	203,044
Day session [1] [2]	*29,004*	*52,479*	*54,542*	*55,175*	*57,325*	*61,540*	*75,919*	*86,766*	*81,619*	*84,344*	*85,579*	*113,641*	*124,390*
Evening session	*0*	*2,541*	*3,479*	*4,728*	*7,100*	*8,216*	*12,845*	*16,990*	*34,317*	*39,085*	*48,752*	*46,224*	*54,423*
Correspondence courses	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*13,199*	*21,518*	*21,959*	*21,204*	*24,231*
Graduates													
Grade 4	236,991	287,646	289,265	280,192	320,359	302,267	270,100	266,509	236,338	264,059	262,055	285,356	—
Grade 7 [1]	17,225	55,580	73,896	81,987	102,082	113,477	108,063	107,719	106,648	99,383	107,482	116,098	—
Grade 11 [2]	4,200	11,495	11,075	8,339	13,384	11,678	26,073	17,626	29,269	29,309	10,191	30,731	—
Teachers													
Grades 1-4	36,665	44,325	45,170	44,208	43,975	44,300	44,156	46,026	46,451	48,252	50,145	51,810	58,283
Grades 5-11 [3]	9,770	21,780	26,125	27,784	30,721	34,947	37,942	39,066	37,661	39,956	40,769	43,505	44,874

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 356–57 (table 176—"General education—Day and evening sessions and correspondence courses").

NOTE: The 7- and 11-year schools include grades 1–4 and 1–7, respectively. Beginning with 1958–59, there are 7-year schools with no grades 1–4, and 11-year schools with no grades 1–4, 5–7, or even grades 1–7.

[1] Beginning with 1954–55, the figures include the evening schools for working youth and their enrollment.

[2] Between 1954–55 and 1956–57 there were grades 8–10.

[3] Includes teachers in the teacher-training schools.

Table 10.—Number of pupils in day and evening sessions and correspondence courses of schools of general education, by grade, sex, and urban or rural area: 1938–39 and 1948–49 through 1959–60

Grade and sex	1938–39	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
URBAN AND RURAL													
1–4													
Total	**1,456,367**	**1,506,732**	**1,444,963**	**1,378,120**	**1,335,503**	**1,224,185**	**1,196,339**	**1,171,753**	**1,189,100**	**1,296,074**	**1,375,012**	**1,452,086**	**1,508,401**
Male	752,941	780,950	743,839	704,180	680,335	624,580	611,996	600,979	610,467	665,741	706,082	744,644	773,869
Female	703,426	725,782	701,124	673,940	655,168	599,605	584,343	570,774	578,633	630,333	668,930	707,442	734,532
5–7[1]													
Total	**119,110**	**284,450**	**344,794**	**399,867**	**430,224**	**448,166**	**467,935**	**442,285**	**413,925**	**418,249**	**443,967**	**511,657**	**627,002**
Male	65,570	159,490	193,147	218,255	231,071	236,121	244,716	234,570	224,860	231,909	245,063	282,354	346,751
Female	53,540	124,960	151,647	181,612	199,153	212,045	223,219	207,715	189,065	186,340	198,904	229,303	280,251
8–11[1 2]													
Total	**29,004**	**55,020**	**58,021**	**59,903**	**64,425**	**69,756**	**88,764**	**103,756**	**129,135**	**144,947**	**156,290**	**181,069**	**203,044**
Male	17,170	30,661	31,304	31,375	33,578	35,416	44,329	48,489	60,052	72,460	81,304	91,800	110,784
Female	11,834	24,359	26,717	28,528	30,847	34,340	44,435	55,267	69,083	72,487	74,986	89,269	92,260
URBAN													
1–4													
Total	**192,881**	**215,669**	**214,336**	**218,723**	**218,594**	**219,741**	**228,145**	**227,190**	**235,829**	**261,348**	**280,314**	**303,322**	**324,801**
Male	98,755	111,955	109,224	111,340	111,033	111,788	116,265	115,875	119,890	133,425	142,492	154,740	165,783
Female	94,126	103,714	105,112	107,383	107,561	107,953	111,880	111,315	115,939	127,923	137,822	148,582	159,018
5–7[1]													
Total	**51,020**	**121,876**	**132,304**	**142,722**	**142,389**	**144,871**	**152,365**	**152,380**	**155,276**	**169,401**	**173,842**	**187,023**	**204,987**
Male	26,719	63,832	68,524	72,739	71,888	72,428	76,367	77,061	80,128	90,172	90,402	97,186	108,241
Female	24,301	58,044	63,780	69,983	70,501	72,443	75,998	75,319	75,148	79,229	83,440	89,837	96,746
8–11[1 2]													
Total	**28,203**	**54,667**	**57,516**	**59,453**	**63,703**	**68,287**	**84,770**	**98,661**	**122,938**	**138,843**	**146,056**	**167,718**	**182,731**
Male	16,667	30,432	31,061	31,128	33,227	34,755	42,301	46,202	57,481	69,516	75,690	84,553	98,255
Female	11,536	24,235	26,555	28,325	30,476	33,532	42,469	52,459	65,457	69,327	70,366	83,165	84,476

Table 10.—Number of pupils in day and evening sessions and correspondence courses of schools of general education, by grade, sex, and urban or rural area: 1938–39 and 1948-49 through 1959–60—continued

Grade and sex	1938–39	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
RURAL													
1–4													
Total	**1,263,486**	**1,291,063**	**1,230,627**	**1,159,397**	**1,116,909**	**1,004,444**	**968,194**	**944,563**	**953,271**	**1,034,726**	**1,094,698**	**1,148,764**	**1,183,600**
Male	654,186	668,995	634,615	592,840	569,302	512,792	495,731	485,104	490,577	532,316	563,590	589,904	608,086
Female	609,300	622,068	596,012	566,557	547,607	491,652	472,463	459,459	462,694	502,410	531,108	558,860	575,514
5–7[1]													
Total	**68,090**	**162,574**	**212,490**	**257,145**	**287,835**	**303,295**	**315,570**	**289,905**	**258,649**	**248,848**	**270,125**	**324,634**	**422,015**
Male	38,851	95,658	124,623	145,516	159,183	163,693	168,349	157,509	144,732	141,737	154,661	185,168	238,510
Female	29,239	66,916	87,867	111,629	128,652	139,602	147,221	132,396	113,917	107,111	115,464	139,466	183,505
8–11[1 2]													
Total	**801**	**353**	**405**	**450**	**722**	**1,469**	**3,994**	**5,095**	**6,197**	**6,104**	**10,234**	**13,351**	**20,313**
Male	503	229	243	247	351	661	2,028	2,287	2,571	2,944	5,614	7,247	12,529
Female	298	124	162	203	371	808	1,966	2,808	3,626	3,160	4,620	6,104	7,784

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică 1960. p. 362–63—table 178 ("Pupils in Schools of general education—Day and evening sessions, and correspondence courses").

[1] Beginning with 1954–55 the figures include evening schools for working youth and their enrollment.

[2] During 1954–55 and 1956–57 there were only grades 8–10.

Table 11.—Number of pupils in schools of general education, by grade, sex, and urban or rural area: 1956–57 and 1959–60; and school-age population (7–17), by sex: Census of February 21, 1956

[— indicates that item is inapplicable]

Grade and sex	Number of pupils						School-age population: 7-17 years (Census of February 21, 1956)[2]			
	1956–57			1959–60						
	Total	Urban	Rural	Total	Urban	Rural	Age and sex	Total	Urban	Rural
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1–4 Total	1,296,074	261,348	1,034,726	1,508,401	324,801	1,183,600	7–10 Total	1,126,096	278,282	847,814
Boys	665,741	133,425	532,316	773,869	165,783	608,086	Boys	527,155	140,464	431,691
Girls	630,333	127,923	502,410	734,532	159,018	575,514	Girls	553,941	137,818	416,123
5–7 [1] Total	418,249	169,401	248,848	627,002	204,987	422,015	11–13 [1] Total	816,348	210,519	605,829
Boys	231,909	90,172	141,737	346,751	108,241	238,510	Boys	414,838	105,898	308,940
Girls	186,340	79,229	107,111	280,251	96,746	183,505	Girls	401,510	104,621	296,889
8–10 [1] Total	144,947	138,843	6,104	—	—	—	14–16 [1] Total	881,434	279,561	601,873
Boys	72,460	69,516	2,944	—	—	—	Boys	441,050	147,573	293,477
Girls	72,487	69,327	3,160	—	—	—	Girls	440,384	131,988	308,396
8–11 Total	—	—	—	203,044	182,731	20,313	14–17 Total	1,206,720	390,155	816,565
Boys	—	—	—	110,784	98,255	12,529	Boys	601,967	205,138	396,829
Girls	—	—	—	92,260	84,476	7,784	Girls	604,753	185,017	419,736

SOURCE OF DATA: Figures are based on tables 14 and 178 of *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960*. Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 74–75 and 362–63.

[1] Figures for grades 5–10 (11) include evening school enrollment. During 1956–57 the entire cycle of the school of general education included only 10 grades. Beginning with 1957–58 it was lengthened to 11 grades.

[2] The increase in the elementary-secondary school-age population between 1956 and 1961 can be estimated from the total population increases during those years. According to the February 21, 1956 census, the population of the Rumanian People's Republic was 17,489,450. On July 1, 1961, the estimated total was 18,566,932. *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R.*, 1962. Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1962. p. 75.

National Minorities

Along with the changes introduced in Rumania's general educational system, a series of transformations has also occurred in private education and the education of national minorities. Although the minority schools were the subject of a number of legal acts in the period immediately following World War II, the fundamental change in their structure and functions was brought about by the Educational Reform Act of 1948. Soon thereafter the Government ordered expropriation of all the assets of churches, congregations, religious communities, private associations, individuals, and physical and juridical persons which "were used as of January 1948 for the operation and maintenance . . . of schools, dormitories, and canteens."[64]

The children of the national minorities from that date on had to get their education exclusively in State institutions, which included schools for minorities.

Although lip service is being paid to the rights and aspirations of the resident nationalities in the sense that instruction is given in their native languages,[65] the essence and content of that instruction is strictly "socialist." The aim is obviously not exploitation and further enrichment of the cultural heritage of the particular nationality within the framework of the dominant culture, but the gradual socialization of the population as a whole.

Hand in hand with bringing the private, parochial, and minority schools within the State school system, the Rumanian Government also decided to close all foreign-supported schools in the country.[66] Although the students and teachers having Rumanian citizenship were enabled to continue their schooling and teaching, respectively, in State institutions, the property of these schools was taken over by the State "with the rights of a lessee."[67]

The State's viewpoint regarding educational policies toward the national minorities is reflected in an article by László Bányai, a Director General in the Ministry of Education in 1957. At the 10th anniversary of the establishment of the people's democracy in Rumania, when Mr. Bányai reviewed educational achievements in the languages of the resident nationalities, he contended that past governments of the country had used education for inculcating chauvinist prejudices in youth and for alienating children from their own cultural background. He further claimed (as illustrating the previous "unfairness" in not providing equal educational opportunities to all the people) that during the 1930–31 academic year only 41 percent of the Ukrainian, 53 percent of the Turkish and Tartar, and 68 percent of the Russian children had been able to graduate from the first four grades.[68]

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[64] For text of Decree No. 176 of Aug. 2, 1948, "Relating to the Expropriation of the Property of Churches, Congregations, Communities, and Private Individuals Used for the Operation and Maintenance of General, Technical, or Vocational Schools," see *Monitorul Oficial*, Bucharest, Part I A., No. 177, Aug. 3, 1948, p. 6324–25.

[65] This was provided for in article IV of the Educational Reform Act of 1948, which also stipulated, however, that Rumanian be taught in these schools from the first grade on. The provision was subsequently amended by Decision No. 415 /1956 calling for the introduction of Rumanian as a required course only from the second grade on. For text of this Decision see *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 25, Aug. 18, 1956.

[66] See Decree No. 159 of July 2, 1948, "Relating to the Operation of Foreign Schools in the Rumanian People's Republic," in *Monitorul Oficial*, Bucharest, Part I A, No. 167, July 22, 1948, p. 6044.

[67] Exception was made only for the property of a foreign State.

In contrast, the article emphasized the Government's actions on behalf of the minorities after March 6, 1945—especially after 1947. During that year a special General Secretariat was established in the then Ministry of Public Education to deal specifically with minority schools. A number of facilities were provided for each of the 15 nationalities living in Rumania, and the Hungarian minority was especially well taken care of by a series of new schools ranging from kindergartens to various institutions of higher learning. A high school was built for each of the Russian, Serbian, Slovak, Tartar, and Greek minorities. Four- and seven-year schools were established in which the language of instruction is Bulgarian, Turkish, Croatian, Czech, Armenian, or Yiddish. There are also 4-year schools in which Polish is the language of instruction. Special teacher-training schools were also established in which the language of instruction is Hungarian, German, Serbian, Ukrainian, Russian, Slovak, Tartar, or Yiddish.

Following the enactment of Decision No. 1380/1956, the State established a General Directorate of Education for the Resident Nationalities (*Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului naţionalităţilor conlocuitoare*) to deal specifically with matters related to the education of national minorities. This directorate, however, seems to have been eliminated by the June 1962 reorganization of the Ministry of Education. Its functions were to cooperate with the other organs of the Ministry in solving problems related to school plans, development of school networks, organization and guidance of the educational process, and equipping the schools; and to collaborate with the people's councils in controlling and inspecting the functions and activities of minority schools.[69]

The curriculum of the minority schools is similar to that of the schools having Rumanian as the language of instruction (see tables 6 and 12).

The first comprehensive figures relating to educational facilities for the national minorities and to the number of students attending them

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[68] *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VI:12:33–41, December 1957.

[69] *Ibid.*

Table 12.—Number of hours per week, per subject, in the schools for the national minorities, by grade and age: 1957–58

Subject	Grade 1 Age 7	Grade 2 Age 8	Grade 3 Age 9	Grade 4 Age 10	Grade 5 Age 11	Grade 6 Age 12	Grade 7 Age 13	Total	Percent
	Hours								
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Total	24	26	26	30	34	34	34	208	99.93
Mother tongue	12	11	7	5	3	2	2	42	20.19
Rumanian	0	3	4	5	2	2	2	18	8.65
Literature in the mother tongue	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	6	2.88
Rumanian literature	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	5	2.40
Russian	0	0	0	2	3	3	3	11	5.29
English (or French or German)	0	0	0	0	2	2	2	6	2.88
History									
Ancient History	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	1.44
History of the Middle Ages	0	0	0	0				3	1.44
Modern and contemporary history	0	0	0	0	3	3			
History of the Rumanian People's Republic	0	0	0	0	0		2	3 2	1.44 0.96
Constitution of the Rumanian People's Republic	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.48
Mathematics	6	6	6	6	0	0	0	24	11.54
Arithmetic	0	0	0	0	5	2	0	7	3.36
Elementary algebra	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	1.44
Elementary geometry	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	5	2.40
Physics	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	5	2.40
Chemistry	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	1.44
Science of nature (rudiments of biological science and of physico-chemical science)	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	1.44
Natural sciences									
Botany	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	1.44
Zoology	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0.96
Anatomy, physiology, and hygiene	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0.48
Geography	0	0	1	2	0	0	0	3	1.44
Notions of physical geography and the continents: Africa, South America, Oceania, and Antarctica	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	3	1.44
Geography of the continents: Europe, Asia and North America	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	2	0.96
Geography of the Rumanian People's Republic	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	0.96
Artistic drawing	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	3.36
Handwriting	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	4	1.92
Physical education	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	14	6.73
Music	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	7	3.36
Handwork and practical work	1	1	1	1	2	2	2	10	4.81

SOURCE OF DATA: UNESCO. *Preparation and Issuing of the Primary School Curriculum* (Publication No. 194). Geneva: UNESCO. International Bureau of Education, 1958. p. 181.

were published in 1957.[70] The data pertaining to the minority schools of general education (table 13) show a small but steady increase in enrollment from 1948–49 to 1951–52, when it reached a peak of 244,649. Beginning with 1952–53, attendance declined until 1955–56, when it was 208,658; and then in 1956–57 rose again, reaching 214,785.

The explanation for the gradual decline in minority school enrollments may perhaps be found in the fact that more and more children of the national minorities choose to complete their schooling in

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[70] *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1957.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1957, p. 206–09. It is interesting to note that the 1960 edition of the statistical annual makes no reference to the educational facilities provided for national minorities.

Table 13.—Number of schools and sections[1] for the national minorities and number of pupils, by type of school and grade: 1948–49 through 1956–57

[0 indicates that schools and sections did not exist]

Item	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Schools of General Education[2]	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND SECTIONS								
4-year									
Schools	1,374	1,449	1,502	1,453	1,452	1,444	1,445	1,416	1,343
Sections	76	73	81	89	89	74	83	118	261
7-year									
Schools	708	720	734	744	712	724	714	685	615
Sections	32	30	34	35	44	40	34	37	62
10- (11-) year									
Schools	33	32	37	36	38	41	44	51	62
Sections	2	5	8	9	15	21	29	47	81
Teacher-Training Schools									
Schools	15	22	23	24	26	25	17	10	0
Sections	1	3	6	10	8	8	13	14	12
Technical Schools									
Schools	31	24	18	18	21	19	12	7	8
Vocational Schools for Apprentices									
Schools	0	0	41	36	25	15	11	20	13
Sections	0	0	48	46	50	42	41	40	59
Higher Education[3]									
Faculties	17	17	20	15	16	17	16	13	11
Sections	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Schools of General Education[2]	NUMBER OF PUPILS								
Grades 1-4	159,853	172,005	171,975	173,748	160,631	148,910	134,475	127,634	131,773
Grades 5-7	55,292	59,204	63,945	63,912	66,598	71,043	70,037	67,026	65,760
Grades 8-10 (11)	5,192	5,441	5,707	6,989	8,334	11,306	12,638	13,998	17,252
Other									
Teacher-training	3,327	4,275	5,617	6,217	5,728	5,671	2,638	1,197	503
Technical education	5,503	7,492	10,061	12,198	11,448	11,917	7,650	1,186	1,212
Vocational schools for apprentices	0	0	8,543	8,566	8,151	6,974	5,425	6,061	7,029
Higher education	2,835	2,887	3,512	3,304	3,253	4,138	3,515	3,437	3,692

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1957.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1957. p. 206–07.

[1] The minority-language sections operate within the framework of schools using Rumanian as the regular language of instruction.

[2] During the 3 academic years 1954–55, 1955–56, and 1956–57, included evening schools for working and village-youth.

[3] Did not exist before August 23, 1944.

Rumanian schools. Thus, the number of children attending schools or sections[71] with instruction in a minority language declined progressively from 1952–53 to 1955–56, although the number of such schools remained roughly stationary—at around 2,350 during this period. The 1956–57 additional enrollment in the minority schools

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[71] The sections, usually consisting of very small classes, operate within the framework of schools having a different language of instruction.

Table 14.—Number of schools and sections[1] for the national minorities and number of pupils, by language of instruction: 1955–56 and 1956–57

[0 indicates that schools and sections in the particular language did not exist]

Item and year	Total	Hungarian	German	Ukrainian	Russian	Serb	Slovak	Yiddish	Tartar	Turkish	Other
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Schools of General Education[2]	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND SECTIONS[1]										
4-year											
SCHOOLS											
1955–56	1,416	1,022	146	92	14	34	23	0	50	13	22
1956–57	1,343	940	157	98	12	30	27	0	44	15	20
SECTIONS											
1955–56	118	38	56	7	1	6	3	1	1	2	3
1956–57	261	163	69	6	2	7	3	0	1	4	6
7-year											
SCHOOLS											
1955–56	685	493	132	22	11	10	3	3	5	3	3
1956–57	615	456	102	20	10	10	2	4	4	3	4
SECTIONS											
1955–56	37	10	18	3	0	1	0	0	1	1	3
1956–57	62	33	20	3	2	0	0	0	2	1	1
10- (11-) year											
SCHOOLS											
1955–56	51	37	8	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
1956–57	62	43	11	3	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
SECTIONS											
1955–56	47	32	14	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	81	62	17	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Teacher-Training Schools											
SCHOOLS											
1955–56	10	4	1	2	0	1	0	0	1	0	1
1956–57	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SECTIONS											
1955–56	14	10	1	1	1	0	1	0	0	0	0
1956–57	12	5	1	3	1	1	0	0	1	0	0
Technical Schools											
1955–56	7	6	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	8	7	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vocational Schools for Apprentices											
SCHOOLS											
1955–56	20	19	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	13	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SECTIONS											
1955–56	40	38	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	59	48	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Higher Education											
FACULTIES											
1955–56	13	13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	11	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
SECTIONS											
1955–56	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	5	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Schools of General Education[2]	NUMBER OF PUPILS[1]										
GRADES 1-4											
1955–56	127,634	100,749	10,819	6,585	2,868	1,853	1,136	185	1,510	530	1,399
1956–57	131,773	103,332	11,560	6,604	3,007	2,104	1,130	178	1,481	705	1,672
GRADES 5-7											
1955–56	67,026	51,485	12,216	1,370	562	416	181	117	268	123	288
1956–57	65,760	52,318	10,103	1,359	572	444	169	132	230	126	307
GRADES 8-10 (11)											
1955–56	13,998	10,370	3,049	268	43	93	70	0	0	0	105
1956–57	17,252	13,163	3,372	301	99	95	61	0	39	0	122
Teacher-Training Schools											
1955–56	1,197	672	149	187	61	60	18	0	38	0	12
1956–57	503	246	76	94	36	33	0	0	18	0	0
Technical Schools											
1955–56	1,186	1,151	0	0	0	35	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	1,212	1,178	34	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Vocational Schools for Apprentices											
1955–56	6,061	5,762	299	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	7,029	6,524	505	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Higher Education											
1955–56	3,437	3,437	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
1956–57	3,692	3,692	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1957.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1957. p. 208–09.

[1] The minority-language sections operate within the framework of schools using Rumanian as the regular language of instruction.

[2] Include evening schools for working and village youth.

of 6,123 pupils resulted from an increase of 70 such schools or sections. Although the number of minority school units for grades 1–11 was 2,424 in 1956–57 as against 2,354 in 1955–56, the increase was due to an increase in the number of sections. Actually, the number of minority schools proper was reduced from 2,152 to 2,020 during the corresponding period. That this decline is expected to be a lasting trend can be seen from the enrollment figures of the minority-language teacher-training institutes, which train teachers for the schools of general education: the number of students at these institutes declined from a high of 6,217 in 1951–52 to only 503 in 1956–57.

A statistical breakdown of the number of minority schools functioning during 1955–56 and 1956–57 in terms of the language of instruction and of the number of children attending them is given in table 14. The yearly fluctuation in enrollment notwithstanding, the largest number of schools use Hungarian as the language of instruction. Thus, during 1955–56, 1,632 of the 2,354 minority school units used Hungarian as the language of instruction and 374 used German. The remaining 348 were divided among 13 other languages. Yiddish was used in only four school units.

The enrollment situation was almost identical. In 1955–56 the total enrollment in the minority schools of general education was 208,658; of these, 162,024 were attending Hungarian-language schools and 26,086 German. The remaining 20,548 were divided among school units using the 13 other languages. The Yiddish units of general education, for example, were attended by only 302 pupils.

The ratio of enrollment in terms of the population with a mother tongue other than Rumanian is revealed by a comparison of the number of pupils shown in table 14 with results of the Rumanian census of February 21, 1956. When the number of pupils in 1955–56 (table 14) is compared with the figures in column 3 (mother tongue)

Table 15.—Population of Rumania, by nationality and mother tongue: Census of February 21, 1956

Population	Nationality	Mother tongue
Total	**17,489,450**	**17,489,450**
Rumanian	14,996,114	15,080,686
Hungarian	1,587,675	1,653,700
German	384,708	395,374
Jewish (Yiddish)	146,264	34,337
Gypsy	104,216	66,882
Ukrainian and Ruthenian	60,479	68,252
Serbian, Croatian, and Slovenian	46,517	43,057
Russian	38,731	45,029
Slovakian	23,331	18,935
Tartar	20,469	20,574
Turkish	14,329	14,228
Bulgarian	12,040	13,189
Czech	11,821	6,196
Other and not stated	42,756	29,011

SOURCE OF DATA: Figures based on tables 15 and 16 of the *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 82-83.

of table 15, the per-thousand ratio of attendance is Hungarian 96.1, German 83.9, Tartar 86.3, and Jewish 8.8. (For the country as a whole the corresponding figure is 99.9.) If nationality rather than mother tongue is used for computation, the ratio is still different. While the ratio of enrollment per thousand of population goes up to 102.3 in the case of the Hungarian minority, it falls to 2.1 per thousand in the case of the Jewish. It is interesting to note that the Tartars, numerically a much smaller minority group than the Jews, are about as well provided with educational facilities, proportionately speaking, as are the medium-size ethnic groups.

The extremely small ratio of attendance in the Yiddish language schools is explained on the one hand by the drive against "cosmopolitanism and Zionism" that began in 1948 and resulted in the closing of almost all Jewish cultural and educational institutions; and on the other hand, by the increasing attendance of Jewish children in Rumanian- and Hungarian-language schools. The ratio is in reality much smaller still, for the census figures relating to the Jews are not quite accurate. Although it may be true that for fear of anti-Semitism only 146,264 identified themselves as Jews (and of these only 34,337 gave Yiddish as their mother tongue), the actual number of Jews living in Rumania early in 1956 was much greater. According to a *New York Times* article of February 26, 1959, discussing the migration of Rumanian Jews to Israel, there were still "250,000 Jews left in Rumania . . . "

On the whole, the educational policies pursued by the Rumanian State toward the resident nationalities are not dissimilar to the ones pursued toward the majority group. Although the element of chauvinism (which to a considerable extent characterized Rumania's educational system in the past, as it did the systems of the neighboring States) has greatly diminished, it has been replaced by a new nationalism euphemistically referred to as "socialist patriotism" and "proletarian internationalism."

In spite of the great efforts of the Rumanian Communists to assimilate the resident nationalities, especially the Hungarian, within the larger framework of the new society, the difficulties that characterized the traditional intergroup relationships of the country seem to be persisting. For example, so far the State has been unable to overcome the ferment engendered by the Hungarian Revolt of 1956 among the Hungarian intellectuals of Transylvania. The unrest has been particularly noticeable among faculty, students, and writers. In an attempt to stem the tide of national antagonism the State embarked on a new policy toward the education of minorities. The first indication of such a policy came during the second National Conference of the Union of Students' Associations held in Bucharest

February 19–22, 1959. In his speech to the conference, Professor Ludovic (Lajos) Takács, then rector of the Bolyai Hungarian University of Cluj, declared:

> . . . we cannot continue the separation of schools by nationalities because it is impossible [in this way] to bring up youth in the spirit of proletarian internationalism, devotion to the people, and the cause of the working class.[72]

Professor Atanase Joja, the then Minister of Education and Culture, although making no definite proposals along these lines, referred to Lenin's teaching that "the youth of diverse nationalities living within the same State should be taught in the same schools."[73] The first steps in this direction were taken in the spring of 1959, when the Government announced that the Hungarian-language Bolyai University would be amalgamated with the Rumanian-language Victor Babeş University and that students thereafter would study in Rumanian. Plans were disclosed for the amalgamation in the Hungarian Autonomous Region, and in Transylvania as a whole, of some of the Rumanian and Hungarian high schools as well. The fundamental idea underlying this step, according to Government statements, is to insure that students intending to go on to a university will know enough Rumanian to study in that language.[74]

Evening Schools and Correspondence Courses

In addition to the regular day schools of general education, special evening schools and correspondence courses were organized in 1954 for the "working youth in towns and villages desiring to obtain or continue their formal education without leaving the labor force."[75] Established for grades 5–11,[76] the evening schools graduated 35,000 students during the first 4 years of operation.[77] The principal aim of these schools is to assure the national economy of an ever-larger number of literate skilled workers and technicians.

Although their popularity gradually increased, the correspondence courses and the evening schools of general education came under severe criticism by the Party early in 1959. They were accused of having admitted a large number of students who were not employed in industrial or agricultural enterprises and of having permitted scholastically poor students and "hooligans" (i.e., elements hostile to the State) to continue their studies. The school authorities and the various controlling institutions were blamed for the hiring of unqualified teachers and were accused of having neglected their academic responsibilities.

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[72] *East Europe* (Free Europe Committee, New York), 8:4:55, April 1959, quoting from *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Feb. 21, 1959.

[73] *Ibid.*

[74] See article by Paul Underwood in *The New York Times*, June 10, 1959.

[75] The evening schools and correspondence courses were first established under Decree No. 438, Oct. 16, 1954 (*Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 45, Oct. 30, 1954). Their organization and functions were regulated by Ministerial Council Decision No. 2047, Nov. 1, 1954 (*Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al R.P.R.*, Bucharest, No. 53, Nov. 1, 1954). This decree and this decision were abrogated in 1959 following the reorganization of the schools.

[76] The first four grades operate only as day schools.

[77] *Scînteia*, Bucharest, May 13, 1959.

In an attempt to "improve the social composition" of the students, the evening schools and correspondence courses were first reorganized in March 1959.[78] According to this plan, the general education evening schools for working youths are of two types: (1) those organized under the auspices of industrial and agricultural enterprises and (2) evening sections set up by high schools of general education. Extending for 4 years, both admit only graduates of the vocational schools for apprentices and graduates of the trade or agricultural schools who have worked after graduation for at least 1 year in production. In exceptional cases, these schools may also admit workers employed in production who have graduated from a 7- (8-) year school, have completed their apprenticeship requirement, and have a 3-year employment record as a skilled worker. These workers, however, must take a 6-month preparatory course before registering in the evening schools.

Although these requirements were left basically unchanged, the correspondence courses and the evening schools of general education underwent a second reorganization in October 1962.[79] In accordance with these changes, the evening schools now operate only with grades 8(9) to 11(12), admitting graduates of the 7- (8-) year schools with training in industrial or agricultural production, constructions, or forestry. The correspondence courses are offered under the auspices of the correspondence sections of the day schools of general education and continue to operate with grades 5 to 11(12). Applicants must be under 25 years of age, and admission to grade 8 of both the evening schools and correspondence sections is based on competitive examinations "within the limit of the annual schooling plan" determined by the State.

Workers to attend the evening schools are selected in the various enterprises by taking into consideration their production efficiency and the degree of "their participation in communal affairs." The "proletarian social composition" of the student body is assured through careful screening of the applicants by special selecting commissions. Such commissions are composed of the director of the enterprise, the delegate of the Party organization, the secretary of the UTM organization, the president of the enterprise committee, and the school principal.

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[78] See Decree No. 89 relating to the abrogation of Decree No. 438 /1954 in *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 8, Mar. 20, 1959. The text of the Decision of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party and of the Council of Ministers for "improving the correspondence courses and evening schools of general and higher education" was published in *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Mar. 11, 1959.

[79] Decision No. 1052 of October 23, 1962. *Colecția de hotărîri și dispoziții ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne*, Bucharest, XI:32:359–70, Nov. 10, 1962.

The curricula and syllabi are established and the textbooks selected by the Ministry of Education, as are details relating to the date and nature of examinations.

Following the 1959 reorganization of the evening schools and correspondence courses, the curricula and syllabi were revised in order to correspond more fully with the aspirations of the State. Although the number of hours devoted to academic subjects was reduced to 20 per week (21 in grade 11), the bulk of the time was allocated to mathematics, physics, chemistry, and the natural sciences. Of the 20 hours for academic subjects, 4 are devoted to mathematics in grades 5–8, 5 in grades 10 and 11, and 6 in grade 10. Two hours are given to physics in grades 6–9, and three in grades 10 and 11.

Table 16.—Number of hours per week, per subject, in grades 5–7 of the evening schools of general education, by grade: 1958–59

Subject[1]	Grade		
	5	6	7
Total	**20**	**20**	**20**
Rumanian language and literature	6	5	4
History	2	2	2
Constitution (civics)	0	0	1
Russian	2	2	2
Mathematics	4	4	4
Physics	0	2	2
Chemistry	0	0	2
Natural sciences	3	2	1
Geography	2	2	2
Drawing[2]	1	1	0

SOURCE OF DATA: *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Apr. 24, 1959, p. 2.

[1] Guidance is given once a month for 90 minutes.

[2] Not required in the correspondence courses.

Table 17—Number of hours per week, per subject, in grades 8–11 of the evening schools of general education, by grade: 1958–59

Subject[1]	Grade			
	8	9	10	11
Total	**20**	**20**	**20**	**21**
Rumanian language and literature	3	3	3	3
History	2	2	0	2
Political economy	0	0	0	2
Scientific socialism	0	0	2	0
Russian	2	2	2	1
Mathematics	4	5	6	5
Astronomy	0	0	1	0
Physics	2	2	3	3
Chemistry	2	2	2	2
Natural sciences	3	2	1	1
Geography	2	2	0	2

SOURCE OF DATA: *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Apr. 24, 1959, p. 2.

[1] Guidance is given once a month for 90 minutes.

Chemistry is taught 2 hours per week in grades 7–11. Although the "patriotic" education of the students permeates the teaching of all subjects, it is achieved primarily through four: history, civics (or political economy and scientific socialism), Rumanian language and literature, and Russian. The last is a required subject in all grades, with 2 hours per week in grades 5–10 and 1 hour in grade 11.

During the 1958–59 academic year, 295 schools had evening sessions. In 1959–60 their number increased to 396. That year, enrollment in the evening sessions and the correspondence courses was 93,328 as against 70,000 the previous year. Of these, 22,981 were in grade 8, representing 43.7 percent of the evening students enrolled in grades 8 to 11.[80]

Evening session attendance and student promotions do not seem to be at the level expected by the State. Very rarely does attendance exceed 90 percent. The lowered requirements and the improvements introduced in March 1959 increased considerably the percentage of those promoted in the upper grades. In Bacău, where only 53 percent of the students in grades 5 to 11 were promoted in 1958–59, 75.6 percent were promoted in 1959–60. In Bucharest the percentage promoted in grades 8 to 11 increased from 43 to 63 during the same period.[81]

Students attending evening schools or taking correspondence courses receive a relatively large number of privileges. Their work shifts are normally organized so as to enable them to attend school and prepare their lessons, and they are not assigned "supplementary" work on school days. They are exempt from paying all school fees, and if they fulfill their production requirements and are promoted regularly from grade to grade, they receive a 30-day paid leave over and above the regular yearly vacation. Students preparing for the *bacalaureat* examinations may receive an extra 10-day paid leave and also (like those preparing for the State examinations) upon request may receive an additional maximum unpaid leave of 15 days.

Although the Rumanian Communists' expectations in 1954 that evening schools would be established were not fulfilled initially, the new effort to "improve the social composition" of the students cannot be minimized. At present, the various Party-controlled educational institutions and selecting commissions are very active in assuring that these schools are reorganized in accordance with the new Decision. It is still too early to draw any definitive conclusion as to their prospects. It is safe to assume, however, that barring any unforeseen events, these schools will further enhance the importance of vocational and technical school over classical-theoretical institutions and will constitute an important means in the hands of the Communists for the "socialist" transformation of Rumanian society.[82]

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[80] See article by I. Gh. Borca in *Contemporanul*, Bucharest, Mar. 11, 1960, p. 2. For changes in evening session and correspondence school enrollments between 1959–60 and 1961–62 see table II.

[81] *Ibid.* See also I. Cerghit *and* V. Morea, "Unele probleme privind desfăşurarea învăţămîntului seral de cultură generală" (Some Problems Concerning the Evening Schools of General Education). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XL:2:61–70, February 1960.

Special Workers' Schools of General Education

Under Decision No. 1009 of the Council of Ministers, August 10, 1957,[83] special "workers' schools" (*şcoli muncitoreşti*) were established to begin with the 1957–58 academic year for employees occupying positions for which they did not have the required academic and/or professional qualifications.[84] In accordance with chapter 1 of the Decision, special 3-year workers' schools with evening sessions were established and correspondence courses were inaugurated, both offering the same educational program as the regular schools of general education.

Divided into science (*réal*) and humanities sections, the workers' schools admit graduates of the 7-year elementary schools upon recommendation by the Ministries, the central institutions, or the central committees of the regional or the urban people's councils. At the end of 3 years students are expected to pass a regular *bacalaureat* examination. The network, curricula, and operation of these schools are regulated by the Ministry of Education.

Educational centers offering preparatory courses (*Centre de consultaţii; Centre de pregătire*) are set up if at least 15 persons register for such a course. These centers, usually established in various institutions and/or enterprises with the cooperation of the nearest school having correspondence courses, and supervised by the educational services of the ministries patronizing them, hire teachers employed in the regular schools of general education or selected from among the specialists of the particular institutions or enterprises. Following proposals by these schools and enterprises, the executive committees of the regional people's councils appoint the teachers officially.

In order to facilitate the schooling of wage earners who wished to acquire a formal education the following concessions were provided for them in chapter 4 of Decision No. 1009: Their weekly working hours were reduced from 48 to 40, and if they attended school regularly they were granted a 40-day paid annual leave in addition to their regular vacation, as well as a 20-day paid leave for the *bacalaureat* examination and a 30-day paid leave for the State examination. Special arrangements were made to enable them to use the laboratories and scientific equipment of the enterprises in which they were employed.

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[82] During the 1958–59 academic year, the number of pupils in grade 1 of the vocational and agricultural schools surpassed for the first time the number of pupils in grade 8 of the schools of general education. *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXIX:5:304, May 1959.

[83] For text of Decision No. 1009/1957 see *Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne*, Bucharest, Vol. 6, No. 54, Aug. 10, 1957.

[84] The academic and other requirements for these positions were specified by Decision No. 1360/1956 of the Council of Ministers.

According to article 15 of the Decision, special preference for entering the various workers' schools was given to Party, trade-union, and UTM members, and to other "activists" who were recommended by the units employing them. These "activists" received over and above their regular vacation, a 20-day paid leave to prepare for the admission examinations of the institutions of higher learning. Wage earners who were 40 years of age when the Council of Ministers passed Decision No. 1360/1956 and who occupied positions for which they did not have the educational requirements were exempt from the provisions of the later Decision, No. 1009/1957, if the Government agencies decided that their qualifications were sufficient for the positions held. If they elected to complete their studies, however, they could benefit from Decision No. 1009.

Detailed instructions relating to the implementation of the Decision were issued by the Ministry of Education in September 1957.[85]

Beginning with the 1957–58 academic year, workers' schools were established in the regional administrative centers and in the city of Bucharest. These schools have evening sessions and correspondence courses and form an integral part of the network of school units operated by the executive committees of the regional people's councils. They use the buildings of the schools of general education and have a curriculum equivalent to that offered in grades 8–11. The division of the workers' schools into science (*réal*) and humanities sections takes place during the third year of the 3-year course.[86] At the end of their studies, graduates are expected to pass a *bacalaureat* examination, and those awarded diplomas have the same rights as students graduated from the regular schools of general education.[87]

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[85] See *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Sept. 27, 1957.

[86] Only the first year of these workers' schools was in operation during 1957–58.

[87] The instructions contain further details on eligibility for the entrance examinations and on the possibility of transferring to the evening sessions of the general schools or the correspondence courses of regular day sessions following completion of the first or second year in workers' schools. Other provisions deal with the establishment of educational centers offering preparatory courses, the yearly school plans, special facilities for students preparing for examinations, and the promotion system. The instructions also give details relating to completion of technical and higher education by wage earners who occupy positions for which such an education is a prerequisite. There are two appendixes, one concerning the various certificates considered as equivalent to the completion certificate of the 7-year elementary school, the other concerning the various diplomas acceptable as equivalent to the diploma of the high school of general education.

Special Schools for the Handicapped

Rumania has relatively few special schools for the handicapped. In 1958–59, there were only 28 schools serving children with speech, sight, and hearing difficulties. Their enrollment was approximately 4,000 as against 3,594 in 1957–58.[88] During 1959–60, 40 schools for the handicapped were operating, with an enrollment of a little over 5,000,[89] and during 1961–62 only 36, but with an enrollment of 5,746.[90]

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[88] International Yearbook of Education (Publication No. 212). Paris/Geneva: UNESCO, 1959. XXI:359.

[89] The Ministry of Education of the Rumanian People's Republic. *Report on the Educational Movement in 1959–1960, Submitted to the 23rd International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1960.* Bucharest, 1960. p. 25.

[90] The Ministry of Education of the Rumanian People's Republic. *Development of Education in the Rumanian People's Republic in the 1961–1962 School-Year. Submitted to the 25th International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1960.* Bucharest, 1962. p. 30.

Chapter V

Vocational and Technical Education

Scope

WITH THE CONSOLIDATION of political power late in 1947, the Rumanian Communists were ready to begin a massive program leading to the "socialist transformation of the national economy." Although sweeping nationalization and collectivization drives were outlined in 1948–49, their swift and successful implementation was initially made all but impossible because of the chronic dearth of professionally competent and politically reliable skilled or semiskilled manpower. The State was therefore compelled to devote increasing attention to developing and expanding vocational and technical education. Vocational education in the Rumanian People's Republic is primarily training for a specific job or function in industry or agriculture, the educational programs reflecting the various and constantly changing occupational needs of the country as determined by the Party and governmental agencies.

The Post-Reform System (1948–50)[1]

Since the adoption of the Educational Reform Act in August 1948, the Rumanian system of vocational education has undergone three major changes. The first basic directives relating to the organization and functions of vocational schools were issued in September 1948, the second in 1950–51, and the third in 1955–56.

The 1948 directives called for the establishment of two basic types of vocational schools: "vocational schools for youth" (*şcoli profesionale pentru tineret*) with a schooling period of 2 to 3 years, and "training schools for adults" (*şcoli de calificare pentru adulţi*) with a schooling period of 1 to 2 years. The former amalgamated the so-called "schools for apprentices" (*şcoli de ucenici*), which were the basic types of vocational schools in prewar Rumania.

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[1] For material on the pre-1948 system, see p. 12.

Designed to satisfy basic manpower needs in the field of industrial and agricultural production, the organization and administration of these schools were entrusted to special departments of economic ministries. The overall coordination of the curricula and programs was assigned to a "Commission on the Coordination of Vocational Education" (*Comisie de coordonare a învăţămîntului profesional*).[2]

The First Five-Year Plan (1950–55)

Although the vocational schools greatly increased in number, the shortage of skilled workers became ever more acute. This shortage was felt especially during the launching of the country's first Five-Year plan, which envisioned ambitious programs to develop the national economy.[3] To ease this shortage, the State decided to emulate the Soviet system of labor reserves, introduced in the USSR in October 1940, and to reorganize the Rumanian system of technical secondary education.

Labor Reserve System

The Rumanian system of labor reserves (*sistemul rezervelor de muncă*) was introduced in May 1951.[4] It was envisioned primarily as training workers in skills required by various segments of the national economy in accordance with specific target plans outlined by governmental authorities. The original plan called for recruiting and training as workers 45 to 55 thousand urban and village youths. The training, free, was offered in two types of schools: vocational schools (*scoli profesionale*) and training schools operating in factories and plants (*şcoli de calificare de pe lîngă fabrici şi uzine*). The former accepted youths 14 to 16 years of age and offered training programs of 2 to 3 years, depending upon the field of specialization. The factory and plant schools accepted youths 16 years of age or older and offered accelerated training programs of 6 to 10 months. Although the schools charged no tuition, their graduates had to sign a contract obligating themselves to work for 4 years in jobs to which they might be assigned.

The school programs envisioned not only technical education for students, but also their thorough Communist indoctrination. The textbooks and visual aids were mere translations or copies of material placed at the schools' disposal by the Ministry of Labor Reserves of the USSR.[5]

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[2] Vangheli Mişicu, *and* Florea Daneş. "Dezvoltarea învăţămîntului profesional şi tehnic din ţara noastră strîns legat de nevoile economiei naţionale." *Revista de Pedagogie* (Review of Pedagogy), Bucharest, VIII:4:54–65, April 1959.

[3] See footnote 2 of chapter IV.

[4] See Decree No. 68 relating to the training and distribution of labor reserves in *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 56, May 18, 1951; p. 631–32.

Both the vocational and the factory and plant schools operated under the overall guidance of the General Directorate of Labor Reserves (*Direcția generală a rezervelor de muncă*), attached to the Council of Ministers.[6] The primary responsibility of the directorate was the recruitment and assignment of skilled and unskilled labor reserves in accordance with State plans and requirements of the economy.

Secondary Technical Education

In addition to establishing the labor reserve schools, the Rumanian authorities devoted considerable attention to developing secondary technical education. Primarily, a number of secondary schools were developed to train the intermediary technical personnel needed by various branches of the economy. The program of these schools aimed at balancing the requirements for general, technical, and practical education. About 20 to 25 percent of the curriculum was devoted to practical work. During the first 2 years it was performed in the school laboratories and shops and during the remaining 2 in the field of production proper. Besides these schools, secondary technical education also included the secondary art schools (*şcoli medii de artă*), the secondary schools of physical education (*şcoli medii de educație fizică*), and the teacher-training schools (*şcoli pedagogice*).[7]

During the 1954–55 academic year—the last year when these types of labor reserve and technical secondary schools functioned—550 schools were operating with a total enrollment of about 160,000. According to official sources, these schools trained almost 100,000 workers and over 37,000 technicians during 1952–54.[8]

The Revised System

The entire system of vocational education came under severe criticism in 1955, when preparations were made to inaugurate the second Five-Year plan. It was felt that since most of the vocational schools did not offer on-the-job training, many graduates found the transition to the productive process rather difficult. When assigned to jobs, others produced poor-quality products or rejects, thus contributing to the general decline in labor productivity. The cost of production, it was felt, continued to increase because of the high rate of capital depreciation brought about by negligent and incompetent handling of tools and equipment. Still other new workers, especially secondary technical schools graduates, whose training was deemed equivalent to that of classical high schools graduates, tended to go into nonmanual administrative, rather than productive, positions.

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[5] Vangheli Mişicu, *and* Florea Daneş, *op. cit.*, p. 58

[6] See Decision No. 399/1951 of the Council of Ministers in *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 56, May 18, 1951, p. 632

[7] For details on teacher-training schools see p. 169ff.

[8] Vangheli Mişicu, *and* Florea Daneş, *op. cit.*, p. 60.

As the schools were then organized, they afforded no opportunity for technical training for those graduates of the 10(11)-year schools of general education who were not interested in entering an institution of higher learning or were not qualified to do so.

Demands for the reorganization of the vocational schools increased and in 1955 the Party and Government issued a new decree to this effect (Decision No. 91/1955). As amended on July 31, 1956,[9] the decree provided for the training of skilled workers and technical personnel in three types of vocational schools:

- ★Vocational schools for apprentices (*şcoli profesionale de ucenici*), including schools for the labor reserves
- ★Technical schools for skilled workers and technical personnel (*şcoli tehnice pentru muncitori calificaţi şi personal tehnic*)
- ★Technical schools for master craftsmen (*şcoli tehnice de maiştri*).

These schools operate under the auspices of large enterprises, factories, plants, machine-and-tractor stations, collective and experimental farms, ministries, and central institutions and organizations. In certain areas where no large enterprises exist, similar vocational schools may be established to train personnel needed by the local smaller enterprises.

As a general policy, each large industrial or agricultural enterprise having a vocational school of its own establishes its own requirement for skilled and technical personnel by taking into consideration the need to increase production in accordance with the various directives of the central planning authorities, the long-range developmental plan of the enterprise, and the need to replace retiring workers. Under normal circumstances, these trained workers may not be transferred by the sponsoring Ministry to any other enterprise. Ministries not having sufficient enterprises with educational facilities may train some of the skilled workers they need by using the facilities of other Ministries. A number of the enterprise-sponsored vocational schools have dormitories and boarding facilities, which are reserved for trainees from other areas and for orphans with no guardians.

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[9] See item 56 in bibliography, Decision No. 1434/1956.

Table 18.—Number of schools, pupils, graduates, and teachers in vocational education for apprentices, by subject field: 1948–49 through 1959–60

[0 indicates that course did not exist — indicates that source did not show any figures]

Item	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Schools												
Total	**511**	**570**	**546**	**484**	**382**	**350**	**342**	**402**	**410**	**408**	**508**	**505**
Mining and petroleum	23	16	11	11	6	8	8	12	17	16	18	17
Electric power and electrotechniques	9	12	12	14	17	15	11	11	11	10	2	2
Metallurgy and machine construction	277	297	264	223	173	134	105	76	72	62	84	75
Chemistry	16	16	15	7	10	9	7	11	16	13	13	13
Lumber industry	26	22	21	17	16	16	15	22	14	14	12	11
Light industry	29	34	40	39	32	26	23	25	22	31	49	54
Food industry	12	24	31	35	33	27	21	2	8	3	4	3
Constructions and construction materials	6	12	13	12	12	14	12	22	27	50	43	34
Polygraphy	2	2	2	5	5	5	4	3	3	3	1	0
Agriculture and forestry	49	71	72	55	33	53	119	142	142	134	212	246
Transport and telecommunications	32	34	34	33	12	12	12	35	34	33	27	24
Commerce	19	21	26	28	27	26	2	2	8	8	25	26
Health	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	29	23	22	18	0
Other	11	9	5	5	6	5	3	10	13	9	0	0
Pupils												
Total	**61,372**	**80,099**	**99,257**	**106,953**	**103,855**	**87,364**	**72,826**	**94,409**	**98,644**	**92,734**	**92,243**	**102,012**
Mining and petroleum	2,376	2,300	2,764	2,984	1,581	1,537	2,089	3,943	4,975	5,235	5,255	5,321
Electric power and electrotechniques	1,131	3,102	7,216	7,455	8,106	7,687	5,818	4,557	4,347	3,315	656	650
Metallurgy and machine construction	39,894	45,355	45,626	54,654	56,968	46,948	27,479	23,347	21,630	20,036	23,329	26,948
Chemistry	1,442	1,976	2,392	2,018	1,941	1,388	1,107	2,000	2,627	2,349	2,006	1,937
Lumber industry	1,535	2,318	3,336	2,522	2,536	2,773	3,798	6,056	3,866	1,751	1,865	1,990
Light industry	2,399	5,439	9,524	10,098	6,663	5,843	6,528	7,278	6,110	6,433	11,452	15,311
Food industry	876	1,796	4,174	4,967	4,642	3,237	2,711	1,132	1,491	614	709	539
Constructions and construction materials	841	1,835	7,416	7,807	7,987	7,047	6,061	6,943	9,241	11,555	11,039	10,837
Polygraphy	332	641	966	897	695	646	456	385	405	198	54	7
Agriculture and forestry	2,889	6,478	6,377	3,063	2,008	3,336	13,997	24,043	28,359	27,214	26,517	29,760
Transport and telecommunications	4,806	4,973	4,950	4,943	3,947	2,541	2,491	8,182	7,325	6,236	3,702	3,975
Commerce	1,939	3,148	4,108	4,916	6,102	3,798	61	315	1,108	1,269	4,063	4,737
Health	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3,879	4,700	2,480	1,596	0
Other	912	738	408	629	679	583	230	2,349	2,460	4,049	0	0

Graduates											
Total	**6,058**	**15,793**	**24,783**	**41,429**	**49,464**	**35,810**	**28,252**	**26,320**	**25,727**	**32,610**	**30,880**	—
Mining and petroleum	395	712	730	1,398	1,070	1,018	961	663	776	1,896	1,640	—
Electric power and electrotechniques	277	719	883	2,237	3,234	2,325	2,270	1,777	1,065	381	276	—
Metallurgy and machine construction	3,334	8,632	9,578	19,456	26,232	18,730	7,279	8,391	5,985	8,309	8,319	—
Chemistry	88	135	450	813	965	879	856	831	637	690	1,081	—
Lumber industry	93	154	1,993	1,244	1,001	925	1,132	1,010	907	1,057	574	—
Light industry	0	972	3,290	4,305	3,444	2,752	2,183	3,711	2,490	2,885	2,916	—
Food industry	0	119	537	845	2,812	1,196	2,398	113	292	103	267	—
Constructions and construction materials	0	—	881	3,548	4,802	4,464	2,224	2,228	2,361	4,564	4,236	—
Polygraphy	0	—	197	433	371	207	194	123	169	135	54	—
Agriculture and forestry	0	903	1,045	2,051	841	949	6,934	4,193	6,658	7,353	7,216	—
Transport and telecommunications	1,243	2,351	3,993	2,414	752	638	1,742	2,229	1,746	3,489	1,689	—
Commerce	310	844	1,068	2,494	3,786	1,361	56	52	0	761	1,012	—
Health	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	875	2,012	987	1,600	—
Other	318	252	138	191	154	366	23	124	629	0	0	—
Teachers												
Total	**4,314**	**5,753**	**7,808**	**6,525**	**6,196**	**6,016**	**5,443**	**5,564**	**6,248**	**5,303**	**5,424**	**6,081**
Mining and petroleum	224	190	257	122	98	96	98	169	320	327	327	328
Electric power and electrotechniques	160	226	418	390	424	402	305	216	207	175	40	35
Metallurgy and machine construction	2,199	2,907	3,885	3,213	3,425	3,409	2,898	1,917	1,699	1,239	1,327	1,689
Chemistry	167	211	197	116	112	106	101	133	190	160	119	145
Lumber industry	130	158	148	159	170	185	173	231	154	112	138	124
Light industry	362	511	743	926	450	447	450	355	359	471	796	1,008
Food industry	76	116	273	288	350	315	182	23	144	39	38	15
Constructions and construction materials	80	159	193	276	282	248	218	390	581	691	647	647
Polygraphy	19	47	50	79	75	94	74	29	24	16	5	0
Agriculture and forestry	193	453	621	204	128	151	736	1,115	1,534	1,132	1,492	1,621
Transport and telecommunications	488	551	646	505	249	169	155	541	487	505	314	362
Commerce	95	128	325	218	384	350	33	33	55	64	84	107
Health	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	321	314	197	97	0
Other	121	96	52	29	49	44	20	91	180	175	0	0

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 376–79, table 185 ("Vocational education for apprentices").

Although the organization and smooth functioning of the schools are the direct responsibility of the sponsoring enterprise, their coordination, educational guidance, and supervision are the responsibility of the ministries or of the sponsoring central institutions and organizations. The Ministry of Education is entrusted with the supervision of the schools from the methodological point of view and with the preparation of textbooks. It also prepares the syllabi and curricula in cooperation with the respective sponsoring agencies. The practical education of the trainees is conducted by skilled workers and master craftsmen instructors, and their general and theoretical education is given by graduates of the institutions of higher learning holding State diplomas or by engineers and technicians.

Vocational Schools for Apprentices

Basically, there are two types of vocational schools for apprentices: (1) vocational schools of enterprises and institutions (*şcoli profesionale de pe lîngă întreprinderi şi instituţii*); (2) vocational schools (schools of labor reserves) of the Ministry of Education (*şcoli profesionale [şcolile rezervelor de muncă] ale Ministerului învăţămîntului şi culturii*).

These schools admit graduates of the 7- (8-) year schools between the ages of 14 and 16.[10] Admission is based on the student's rank in the entrance and medical examinations. Through his parents or guardians, each accepted student must sign a contract whereby he undertakes to work for 3 years in the enterprise or institution that has trained him, or in any other place that he might be assigned to.

The formal training of the apprentices lasts from one to nine months and is given in special school shops. At the end of this phase, the apprentices continue their training in actual production. The apprenticeship lasts 2 to 4 years, depending upon the trade and specialty.[11] First- and second-year apprentices in fields requiring 2 years of training spend 6 hours per day in production, and third-year apprentices up to 6 hours during the first two quarters and up to 8 hours during the third quarter of that "academic year." In addition, they have to attend a number of theoretical courses and devote spare time to "cultural-educational activities".[12]

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[10] Up to 1957 these schools also accepted graduates of the 4-year elementary schools. See article 11 of Decision No. 1404 cited in footnote 24 of this chapter.

[11] The list of trades in which training is offered by the vocational schools for apprentices as well as by the other types of vocational and trade schools was approved by the Council of Ministers on August 6, 1956 under Decision No. 1566 (Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1956 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1956, p. 102.) Its first amendment on September 17, 1957 (see footnote 24 of this chapter on Decision No. 1404) provided for transfer of training in certain areas to the technical schools for skilled workers, the technical schools for technical personnel, and the so-called short course training schools. A new list of trades was established for the 1961–62 academic year on October 27, 1961, by virtue of Decision No. 664 of the Council of Ministers. This Decision also

Normally, the second- and third-year apprentices are assigned to work alongside skilled workers or in teams having a number of specialists. In rarer cases, they are grouped in separate brigades of their own. Under this system, foremen train new and unskilled workers in the production process. The *brigadier* (foreman) assigns the newcomer to a variety of jobs and supervises him as he carries out assignments. As the newcomer becomes proficient, he is moved to more responsible jobs. Practical work is also done in the school shops.

Some of the vocational schools have relatively up-to-date workshops, lecture halls, and well-equipped laboratories for demonstration and student practice work. The majority of these schools, however, suffer from serious shortages of modern equipment and rely on the enterprises in the respective communities for such facilities.

In the villages, apprentices are trained in vocational schools operating under the auspices of the State farms, agricultural collectives and associations, and machine-and-tractor stations. During the agricultural season the trainees work in the fields and repair shops. Lectures are restricted to the winter months.[13]

The vocational schools for apprentice labor reserves functioning under the direction of the Ministry of Education are organized as production units to meet local needs in maintenance, repairs, and installations. Apprentices in these schools are trained to install and repair water, light, gas, and power devices, for example.

Ultimate responsibility for the activities of the vocational schools operating under the auspices of enterprises or institutions lies with the managers of the latter. In the discharge of their duties they are assisted by the school principals. These principals are additionally responsible for the operation and activities of the vocational schools functioning under the guidance of ministries or other central State organizations.

At the end of the apprenticeship period, each trainee must first take a practical examination before an examination commission. The successful candidate receives a "skilled worker certificate" (*certificat de muncitor calificat*) that entitles him to take the graduation examination given by the vocational school. A certificate holder who passes this examination obtains a graduation diploma (*diplomă de absolvire*), and those who fail it may take it once more.

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provided that beginning with the 1962–63 academic year the Ministry of Education (with the concurrence of the State Planning Committee and the interested ministries and central governmental organizations) would establish the list of trades to be offered by the vocational and trade schools. In addition, the Decision changed somewhat the schooling period for each type of vocational school. For the text of Decision No. 664 see Ministerul Justiției. *Colecție de legi, decrete, hotăriri și dispoziții 1961, 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura științifică, 1962, p. 67–91.

[12] See Order of the Ministry of Education of Jan. 29, 1957 in *Gazeta Învățămîntului* (Journal of Education), Bucharest, Feb. 1, 1957.

[13] For details on agriculture education see p. 101ff. and p. 124ff.

After the examinations the trainees are assigned to their jobs, but those holding only a certificate are assigned to a lower wage group than those holding both certificate and graduation diploma. Training in a number of fields is available not only in the regular vocational schools for apprentices but also through so-called "courses of short duration" (*cursuri de scurtă durată*). Such courses may be offered either in fields requiring a short period of training, such as butchering, mine carpentry, and canning of milk products, or—in case of great urgency and need—in certain other fields.[14]

In spite of the strenuous efforts of the last few years, however, it appears that on-the-job training continues to suffer from the basic shortcomings that plagued the system before the reorganization of 1955–56. The skilled workers entrusted with the training of the apprentices, for example, seem to be more eager to fulfill their production norms at the expense of their instructional responsibilities; the managers of enterprises having ultimate responsibility for the entire vocational educational program, in turn, are more preoccupied with the general tasks of production and shift their duties to the school directors.

Particularly great defects seem to have occurred in the vocational schools of agriculture, mining, and construction, where the students are usually employed in more arduous tasks. For one thing, the number of applicants for admission into these schools has been rather small. The blame is laid on the 7-year-school instructors for failing to guide their graduates towards these occupations.[15] In an attempt to increase the number of applicants, the admission policies of these schools were eased in 1957–58 so as to exempt all applicants from taking the entrance examination required by the other vocational schools. Applicants are now admitted to these agricultural, mining, and construction schools on the basis of their grades in the 7-year schools.

A series of other measures was taken to improve the overall functioning of the vocational schools.

In order to improve the social composition of the apprentices and eliminate the high rate of changeover in the student body, the schools were ordered to apply the principle of territorial recruitment, i.e., to give preference to those applicants of "proletarian origin" having fathers employed in any of the enterprises of the respective community. The number of hours devoted to theoretical instruction was reduced from 6 to 5 and all subjects deemed "nonessential" or not directly connected with the vocation pursued were eliminated from the curriculum. Concurrently, plans were laid to print and standardize textbooks and produce teaching aids.

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[14] Decree No. 48, March 1959, for example, provided for short-term preparation of technical-administrative personnel desperately needed by the Government at that time. For text of the decree see *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 7, Mar. 6, 1959, p. 49. The decree was inplemented by Decision No. 129/1959 of the Council of Ministers, as amended by Decision No. 506, May 30, 1962. See *Colecția de hotărîri și dispoziții ale Consiliului de Miniștri al Republicii Populare Romîne*. Bucharest, XI:17:134–35, June 5, 1962.

[15] See conclusions of the "Collegium of the Ministry of Education of March 4, 1957" in *Gazeta Invățămîntului*, Bucharest, Apr. 5, 1957.

To improve the technical and practical training of the apprentices, plans were made to assign groups of them to special master craftsmen instructors who would guide them from the first year until graduation. Theoretically, these master craftsmen are envisioned as joining their respective groups in the academic courses also, the better to integrate theoretical and practical training. The theoretical courses encompass a number of subjects in general education, such as mathematics and political and physical education, as well as subjects of a vocational nature. Among the latter are those relating to special technology, general technology, technical physics, technical design, organization of production, and calculation of norms and cost.[16]

Technical Schools for Skilled Workers and Technical Personnel

The technical schools (*şcoli tehnice*) are also organized under the auspices of enterprises, institutions, ministries, and central State organizations.[17] As a rule, such schools are established only in the more populated centers, and, whenever feasible, next to an industrial complex to which they may be linked. The program lasts from 1 to 3 years, depending upon the trade or field of specialization. With certain exceptions, the technical schools admit only graduates of the secondary schools who have passed the required admittance and medical examinations. Upon admittance, like the students of the vocational schools for apprentices, the students of the technical schools also must sign a contract whereby they undertake to work after graduation for 3 years at an assigned job. They are customarily assigned to jobs for which they were trained by the ministry maintaining their school. The technical schools are envisioned as preparing skilled workers and technical personnel for fields that require a higher level of education than do the fields for which the vocational schools prepare their graduates.

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[16] For a list of vocational, trade, and agricultural schools operated by the ministries, departments, and people's councils during academic year 1960–61, see Ministerul Învăţămîntului şi Culturii. *Îndrumător pentru admiterea în şcolile profesionale, şcolile de meserii şi şcolile agricole: Anul şcolar 1960–1961.* (Guide to Admission into the Vocational, Trade, and Agricultural Schools. Academic Year 1960–1961). Bucharest: Tipografia Învăţămîntului, 1960, 176 p. This guide also gives the areas of training or specialization offered by each school and includes a sample of the apprenticeship contract in appendix 3, p. 175–76.

[17] For a list of the technical schools and the technical schools for master craftsmen (including the areas of specialization) operated by the ministries, departments, and people's councils during academic year 1960–61, see Ministerul Învăţămîntului şi Culturii. *Îndrumător pentru admiterea în şcolile tehnice şi tehnice de maiştri: Anul şcolar 1960–1961* (Guide to Admission into the Technical Schools and the Technical Schools for Master Craftsmen: Academic Year 1960–1961). Bucharest: Tipografia Învăţămîntului, 1960, 122 p. A sample of the contract signed by the student, the school, and the enterprise representative appears on p. 17–18.

After graduating from the technical schools and then spending at least 2 years in production, workers may be appointed assistant master craftsmen (*ajutori de maiştri*). If they then work in this capacity for 1 to 2 years, they may take the examinations for the diploma of master craftsman without first having to attend the special technical schools for master craftsmen.

Although the semiprofessional training given by the technical schools is designed to be terminal, those who have finished this training, have graduated from high school, and have spent at least 2 years in production may register in the correspondence sections of the institutions of higher learning without having to take the normally required admittance examinations. Not many do register, however, since most of the technical school graduates in production who previously graduated from high school have already been rejected by a university or an institute.

A number of technical schools also accept graduates of the 7- (8-) year schools. These technical schools offer daytime courses lasting from 2 to 4 years.

The technical schools vary in scope, requirements, and duration of studies. There are technical schools for skilled workers (*şcoli tehnice pentru muncitori calificaţi*), technical schools for technical personnel (*şcoli tehnice pentru personal tehnic*) and special art schools (*şcoli speciale de artă*).

All of these schools are terminal. Their programs usually last from 1 to 3 years, with theoretical and practical instruction given at the schools and production training on the job. The training is designed to enable students to master quickly and easily such industrial techniques as their job assignments may require. The skilled labor ratings which they receive with their graduation certificate are determined by their daily work grades, demonstrated proficiency in skills of the trade, and final examination grade.

The technical schools for skilled workers are lower in rank than those for technical personnel. They specialize in training workers for areas where the shortage of skilled personnel is particularly acute. A number of the specialties offered by the technical schools for skilled workers were within the domain of the vocational schools for apprentices before 1957.[18] Among these specialities were typography, radio construction, and operations in synthetic drug manufacturing.

The technical schools for technical personnel are designed primarily for graduates of the high schools of general education who either fail to qualify for admission to the institutions of higher learning or decide against attending them. These schools are envisioned as training students for semiprofessional auxiliary functions. Specifically, they may train students for such semiprofessional public health work as that of X-ray technician (2 years), nurse (2 to 3 years), clinical laboratory assistant (2 years), and veterinary aid (2 years). Or, the training may be in work connected with industry, agriculture, education, and culture.[19]

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[18] See article 11, paragraph 11, of Decision No. 1404, cited in footnote 24 of the present chapter.

The arts schools were first organized in 1954.[20] Established under the auspices of the regional and urban people's councils, they operate under the immediate guidance of the cultural sections of the executive committees of the respective councils. These schools were self-supporting institutions receiving additional aid, if necessary, from the State institutions and enterprises. The school taxes were established at 3 percent of the student's or the parent's net income. The rate was reduced to 2 percent per student if the family had two children studying in these schools and to 1.5 percent per student in the case of more than two children from the same family. In 1954, the following 16 cities had people's art schools: Arad, Braşov (Oraşul Stalin), Bucharest, Brăila, Cluj, Craiova, Lugoj, Oradea, Petroşani, Ploieşti, Reşiţa, Satu Mare, Sft. Gheorghe, Sibiu, Sighet, and Tg. Mureş.

During the 1959–60 academic year, 41 art schools offered day courses in choreography, fine arts, and music, with a total enrollment of 12,261 pupils.[21]

Technical Schools for Master Craftsmen

The technical schools for master craftsmen are theoretically organized only in the highly developed industrial and agricultural centers "with facilities to assure the thorough and economical training of the applicants."[22] These are recruited among the highly skilled workers of large enterprises and the graduates of vocational schools. Applicants may not be above 35 years of age and must have had at least 3 to 5 years' experience in production. In addition, they must have fulfilled their military service requirements. Graduates of these schools are expected to become the principal assistants to engineers in the organization and management of the various production processes.

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[19] See article 11, paragraph C of Decision 1404.

[20] Decision No. 1720 of September 20, 1954. Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1954 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1954. p. 12-13.

[21] The Ministry of Education and Culture of the Rumanian People's Republic. *Report on the Educational Movement in 1959–1960, Submitted to the 23d International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1960.* Bucharest, [1960] p. 26. For statistical changes from 1959–60 through 1961–62 see appendix table III.

[22] See footnote 17.

Table 19.—Number of schools, pupils, and graduates in technical education for master craftsmen, by field of training: 1955–56 through 1959–60

[0 indicates that school or course did not exist]
[— indicates that source did not show any figures]

Field and year	Schools	Pupils			Graduates
		Total	Day school	Correspondence courses	
Total					
1955–56	97	7,927	3,873	3,925	0
1956–57	96	12,723	6,655	5,421	527
1957–58	87	12,317	7,629	4,348	3,190
1958–59	84	9,830	6,623	2,954	2,956
1959–60	84	14,702	7,112	6,744	—
Mining and Petroleum					
1955–56	6	898	446	452	0
1956–57	7	1,237	611	626	0
1957–58	7	1,232	770	436	274
1958–59	8	1,238	812	412	271
1959–60	9	2,155	1,011	1,115	—
Electric Power and Electrotechniques					
1955–56	3	909	86	786	0
1956–57	1	741	64	517	0
1957–58	1	398	84	314	38
1958–59	1	301	105	196	51
1959–60	1	475	171	304	—
Metallurgy and Machine Construction					
1955–56	5	721	472	202	0
1956–57	5	2,355	644	1,208	37
1957–58	6	2,181	1,109	834	404
1958–59	6	1,747	946	618	407
1959–60	7	3,310	1,038	1,639	—
Chemistry					
1955–56	4	208	208	127	0
1956–57	5	595	595	245	88
1957–58	5	484	484	301	88
1958–59	5	475	475	319	151
1959–60	6	421	421	358	—
Lumber Industry					
1955–56	5	185	125	60	0
1956–57	3	503	74	429	0
1957–58	1	120	32	88	12
1958–59	3	114	72	42	22
1959–60	2	69	69	—	—
Light Industry					
1955–56	5	436	263	173	0
1956–57	5	851	405	446	118
1957–58	5	919	459	460	191
1958–59	7	900	510	390	233
1959–60	6	1,226	581	645	—
Food Industry					
1955–56	4	607	206	401	0
1956–57	3	507	181	326	45
1957–58	2	214	117	97	75
1958–59	1	153	137	16	50
1959–60	1	590	201	389	—
Constructions and Construction Material					
1955–56	2	845	160	685	0
1956–57	2	1,015	279	736	0
1957–58	2	659	399	260	120
1958–59	1	532	376	156	193
1959–60	3	1,360	409	824	—

Table 19.—Number of schools, pupils, and graduates in technical education for master craftsmen, by field of training: 1955–56 through 1959–60—Continued.

Field and year	Schools	Pupils			Graduates
		Total	Day school	Correspondence courses	
Transport and Telecommunication					
1955–56	7	786	463	323	0
1956–57	8	1,123	653	470	197
1957–58	6	1,069	376	693	354
1958–59	3	674	186	488	283
1959–60	3	483	189	294	—
Agriculture and Silviculture					
1955–56	48	1,943	1,225	718	0
1956–57	50	3,301	3,077	224	42
1957–58	46	4,753	3,784	969	1,464
1958–59	47	3,607	3,132	475	1,266
1959–60	45	4,479	3,053	1,426	—
Polygraphy					
1955–56	1	70	25	0	0
1956–57	1	150	36	30	0
1957–58	1	133	43	14	13
1958–59	1	89	28	5	29
1959–60	1	134	32	45	—
Other Fields					
1955–56	7	319	275	44	0
1956–57	6	345	286	59	0
1957–58	5	155	155	0	0
1958–59	0	0	0	0	157
1959–60	0	0	0	0	—

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 374–75, table 184 ("Technical education for master craftsmen").

Admission into the technical schools for master craftsmen is made on the basis of recommendations by the enterprises, in the order of the results obtained in admittance examinations and within the limits of the established quota of openings. Normally, the only applicants recommended are those who have excelled in their theoretical and practical studies while attending vocational school and who have later become leading workers in production.

The training period lasts from 2 to 3 years. About half the time is allocated to theoretical studies; the rest is spent in production. For the duration of their studies the master craftsmen students are paid a wage equal to their average yearly wage during the 12 months immediately preceding their schooling. This amount, however, cannot be higher than the wage of an assistant master craftsman in the particular field. At the end of their studies, the graduates are awarded the title of master craftsman (*maistru*) and are assigned to work for 1 to 2 years as assistant master craftsmen. If there are no openings in this capacity, the graduates may be appointed as chiefs of labor brigades.

Graduates who have excelled in both theoretical and practical learning may be recommended by the enterprises in which they are employed to continue their studies in the day sessions of the technical institutions of higher learning. Candidates so recommended, however, must pass a high school equivalency examination in two or three subjects, as well as the admission examination given by the institution of higher learning. To facilitate their preparation for these examinations, the Ministry of Education organizes special courses whenever needed. Successful candidates receive a scholarship equivalent to the wages of an assistant master craftsman in the particular field of specialization for the entire period of higher education. The students must sign a contract with the scholarship-donor enterprise to work for at least 5 years after graduation in that enterprise.

These privileges are also extended to the graduates of the enterprise-supported schools which are made equivalent with the technical schools for master craftsmen, as well as to master craftsmen who are graduates of a regular high school and have at least 2 years' experience in production.[23]

Aside from the three standard types of vocational schools provided for in the reorganization acts of 1955–56, special vocational schools may be organized from time to time depending upon the particular needs of the economy as determined by the Party and Government. Thus in 1957–58 special vocational schools for foremen, as well as trade and agricultural schools, were established to fill the gaps in these fields.

Schools for Foremen

A new type (since 1957) of vocational school, designed to produce highly skilled technical personnel for leading positions in industry and agriculture, the schools for foremen have a student body composed of graduates of the high schools of general education and of the technical schools for master craftsmen, admitted on the basis of competitive entrance examinations. The schooling lasts 3 years. Graduates of the schools for foremen, with a rank intermediate between that of a master craftsman and that of an engineer, are expected to be able to organize and supervise production in those sections of plants and enterprises where engineers are not absolutely necessary.

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[23] See Decision No. 882 amending article 40 of Decision No. 1434/1956, in Ministerul Justiției. *Colecție de legi, decrete, hotărîri și dispoziții 1957, 1 Mai–30 Iunie.* Bucharest: Editura științifică, 1957, p. 145.

Agricultural Schools

The agricultural schools (*şcoli agricole*) were first reorganized during the 1957–58 academic year.[24] With the schooling period extended under the reorganization to 3 years, these schools admitted only graduates of the 7-year village schools. Operating under the guidance of the Ministry of Education, the agricultural schools were self-supporting, deriving their income from the work rendered by the students and from school taxes. The curricula and the syllabi were established by the Ministry of Education and the instruction was offered in school shops or in the shops of the State farms and machine-and-tractor stations. Graduates received a diploma equivalent to the one received by graduates of the vocational schools for apprentices.

During the 1957-58 academic year only three or four such schools operated in each region, on an experimental basis.

Following the collectivization drive and the subsequent establishment of the High Council of Agriculture (*Consiliul superior al agriculturii*) in April 1962, however, the entire system of agricultural education was again reorganized. Bearing in mind a long-range agricultural plan, the State decided to—

★establish a system of mass agrozootechnical education for peasants

★introduce "agriculture" as a required subject in grades 5 to 8 of the 8-year village schools[25]

★train farm mechanics

★train master craftsmen in farm mechanics

★train agronomic, horticultural, and veterinary technicians

★train agricultural hydrotechnicians

★train cadres in higher studies[26]

★train cadres in specialized agricultural economics.

Under Decision No. 428 of May 12, 1962,[27] the so-called agrozootechnical courses for the peasantry are organized by the district (*raional*) people's councils. These courses, offered during the winter months, extend through 3 years. Open for peasants up to 40–45 years of age, the courses consist of two or three lectures per week, followed by discussions and demonstrations. Students passing the examination at the end of the third year receive a course certificate.

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[24] See Decision No. 1404 relating to the establishment of agricultural and trade schools and to certain measures concerning the improving of vocational and technical education, in Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1957 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1957, p. 107–13.

[25] See p. 49.

[26] See p. 124ff.

[27] Of the Rumanian Workers' Party and the Council of Ministers of the Rumanian People's Republic. See this Decision, "On the Development and Improvement of Agricultural Education," in *Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne*, Bucharest, XI:14:102–24, May 23, 1962.

The same Decision called for 15,000 farm mechanics to be trained annually in the 3-year vocational schools operated under the auspices of collectives and State farms and machine-and-tractor stations. These institutions admit graduates of the 7- (8-) year schools recruited from the geographical area of the agricultural unit sponsoring the school. Practical education in workshops takes up two-thirds of the schooling period.

The master craftsmen in farm mechanics are trained in the 3-year schools for master craftsmen operated by the enterprises and subordinated to the Ministry of Metallurgy and Machine Building (*Ministerul metalurgiei şi construcţiilor de maşini*). These schools admit annually a total of 490 graduates of the vocational schools for farm mechanics who have had at least 3 years' experience in production and who pass an entrance examination. The candidates must be recommended by the State farms or machine-and-tractor stations and must be at least 23 to 30 years of age. Half of the schooling period is allocated to practical work in production.

On the basis of a competitive examination, graduates of the 7- (8-) year village schools are admitted to the 4-year technical agricultural schools operated by State farm units to be trained as agronomic, horticultural, and veterinary technicians. After graduation from these technical schools the students serve as assistants to engineers and veterinarians. The plan is to train 890 agronomic, 3,700 veterinary, and 940 horticultural technicians annually. Practical work takes up 50 percent of the first 3 years and all of the fourth year.

Agricultural hydrotechnicians are trained in 2-year technical schools subordinated to the State Waters Committee (*Comitetul de stat al apelor*). Giving special consideration to village applicants and using a competitive examination as a basis for admission, these schools admit the graduates of the schools of general education who possess the *bacalaureat* diploma. When the requirement for this diploma is waived or when the number of candidates falls below the quota, the competitive examinations are not given.

Admitting graduates of the 7- (8-) year village schools, special 4-year technical bookkeeping schools train their students in specialized agricultural economics. When they graduate, these students are expected to have an adequate background not only in bookkeeping but also in agriculture, economics, and statistics, and thus be able to evaluate and analyze the economic activities of the various agricultural units.

Trade Schools

Organized during the 1957–58 academic year, the trade schools are designed to prepare skilled workers for rural areas.[28] Admitting graduates of the 7- (8-) year village schools, these schools have a 3- to 4-year program concentrated on such trades as wheelmaking, mechanical servicing, locksmithing, roofing, and tailoring. Like the agricultural schools, the trade schools are self-supporting and operate under the guidance of the Ministry of Education.

Enrollment[29]

In Rumania, as in the other "socialist" countries, training the skilled and semiskilled personnel needed by the various branches of the national economy is considered to be one of the primary functions of education. For this reason the State has given perhaps more attention to vocational and technical schools than to any others. Students in the schools of general education are being directed more and more for their further education to these schools rather than to the institutions of higher learning. As a result, vocational and technical school enrollments in the late 1950's increased, especially in comparison with pre-1948 enrollments.

The total number of youths attending vocational and technical schools in 1948–49 was 136,540. Of these, 61,372 (table 18) attended vocational schools for apprentices, and 75,168 (table 20) attended technical schools. At the end of the first Five-Year Plan, however, enrollment had actually gone down to 117,569, despite the fact that the State had been paying more than proportional attention to this branch of education. But as a result of measures inaugurated during the 1956–57 academic year, enrollment began to increase, reaching 148,865 by 1959–60. Of these, 102,012 (table 18) attended the lower-grade vocational schools for apprentices, with over half in agriculture, forestry, metallurgy, and machine-building courses. A total of 46,853 attended the various types of technical schools. Of this number, 14,702 (including 6,744 taking correspondence courses) were in the technical schools for master craftsmen (table 19).

During 1959–60, approximately two-thirds of the master-craftsmen students were registered in the fields of agriculture, forestry, metallurgy and machine construction, and mining and petroleum. Only 475 students (including 304 taking correspondence courses) were

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[28] See footnote 24 of this chapter.

[29] See footnote 44 of chapter II. For statistical changes from 1959–60 through 1961–62, see appendix tables I and III.

Table 20.—Number of schools, pupils, graduates, and teaching cadres in technical secondary education, by field of training: 1948–49 through 1954–55

Item	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55
Schools							
Total	**454**	**380**	**377**	**375**	**372**	**366**	**281**
Mines and petroleum	11	12	10	9	9	10	6
Electric power and electrotechniques	4	7	8	8	8	8	6
Metallurgy and machine construction	18	19	26	27	27	23	14
Chemistry	5	5	5	4	5	6	8
Lumber industry	12	12	18	12	11	9	7
Light industry	11	12	14	14	14	12	13
Food industry	3	5	7	9	9	11	10
Constructions and construction materials	10	17	25	21	21	21	22
Transport and telecommunication	7	9	11	13	14	14	14
Agriculture and silviculture	69	83	90	95	106	110	78
Culture and art[1]	10	11	22	23	19	19	14
Economics (commerce, finance, statistics, and cooperatives)	110	118	80	78	71	71	49
Sanitation	30	24	25	30	30	28	19
Physical culture and sport	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
Other	148	40	30	26	22	18	15
Pupils							
Total	**75, 168**	**78, 963**	**96, 900**	**110, 682**	**105, 966**	**114, 829**	**79, 078**
Day schools	**75, 168**	**78, 963**	**96, 900**	**105, 268**	**98, 601**	**102, 435**	**72, 406**
Evening sessions	—	—	—	**1, 234**	**1, 322**	**2, 450**	**1, 564**
Correspondence courses	—	—	—	**4, 180**	**6, 043**	**9, 994**	**5, 108**
Mines and petroleum, total	1,702	2,444	3,779	4,204	3,544	3,528	2,874
Day schools	*1,702*	*2,444*	*3,779*	*4,154*	*3,500*	*3,303*	*2,613*
Electric power and electrotechniques, total	1,149	2,317	3,256	4,518	5,712	6,723	3,789
Day schools	*1,149*	*2,317*	*3,256*	*4,092*	*3,990*	*3,975*	*2,630*
Metallurgy and machine construction, total	4,650	6,407	9,722	12,465	12,784	12,913	5,922
Day schools	*4,650*	*6,407*	*9,722*	*11,470*	*11,849*	*11,621*	*5,394*
Chemistry, total	739	1,100	1,507	1,978	1,831	2,894	2,758
Day schools	*739*	*1,100*	*1,507*	*1,901*	*1,737*	*2,578*	*2,411*
Lumber industry, total	1,561	1,777	2,142	2,460	1,829	1,848	1,965
Day schools	*1,561*	*1,777*	*2,142*	*2,460*	*1,818*	*1,731*	*1,778*
Light industry, total	1,361	2,286	3,524	3,921	3,243	3,054	3,144
Day schools	*1,361*	*2,286*	*3,524*	*3,805*	*3,005*	*2,910*	*2,967*
Food industry, total	433	1,041	1,491	2,301	2,799	3,134	3,484
Day schools	*433*	*1,041*	*1,491*	*2,264*	*2,731*	*3,088*	*3,000*
Constructions and construction materials, total	1,315	4,758	7,571	8,414	8,051	8,006	6,662
Day schools	*1,315*	*4,758*	*7,571*	*8,219*	*7,375*	*7,397*	*6,176*
Transport and telecommunication, total	1,255	1,750	1,951	2,877	2,831	3,756	3,818
Dau schools	*1,255*	*1,750*	*1,951*	*2,722*	*2,733*	*3,258*	*3,355*
Agriculture and silviculture, total	7,747	11,337	19,341	23,157	22,707	24,966	20,586
Day schools	*7,747*	*11,337*	*19,341*	*22,128*	*21,480*	*22,649*	*20,586*
Culture and art, total	115	669	1,957	2,232	2,299	2,531	1,721
Day schools	*115*	*669*	*1,957*	*2,178*	*2,235*	*2,419*	*1,492*
Economics (commerce, finance, statistics, and cooperatives), total	27,649	29,791	24,650	30,318	26,697	28,715	10,106
Day schools	*27,649*	*29,791*	*24,650*	*28,038*	*24,575*	*24,850*	*8,426*
Sanitation, total	3,097	4,086	5,567	5,898	5,593	6,445	6,835
Day schools	*3,097*	*4,086*	*5,567*	*5,898*	*5,593*	*6,445*	*6,835*
Physical culture and sport, total	765	1,030	1,388	1,595	1,466	1,587	1,043
Day schools	*765*	*1,030*	*1,388*	*1,595*	*1,466*	*1,587*	*1,043*
Other, total	21,630	8,170	9,054	4,344	4,580	4,729	4,371
Day schools	*21,630*	*8,170*	*9,054*	*4,344*	*4,514*	*4,624*	*3,665*

Table 20.—Number of schools, pupils, graduates, and teaching cadres in technical secondary education, by field of training: 1948–49 through 1954–55—Continued

Item	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55
Graduates							
Total	**7,329**	**6,636**	**14,111**	**23,582**	**17,194**	**21,001**	**21,912**
Mining and petroleum	92	118	256	925	1,016	1,021	550
Electric power and electrotechniques	78	250	410	713	610	934	822
Metallurgy and machine construction	515	648	1,879	2,456	1,832	2,428	1,674
Chemistry	—	—	230	376	239	325	549
Lumber industry	184	74	354	568	404	432	489
Light industry	33	21	420	877	630	859	780
Food industry	—	43	131	277	302	358	782
Constructions and construction materials	72	165	603	1,321	1,224	1,811	1,876
Transport and telecommunication	84	77	326	591	581	528	638
Agriculture and silviculture	190	606	2,181	5,427	4,342	5,022	4,289
Culture and art [1]	—	17	200	336	281	381	531
Economics (commerce, finance, statistics, and cooperatives)	3,601	3,502	5,897	7,294	4,216	4,491	6,344
Sanitation	—	—	709	1,523	895	1,201	1,330
Physical culture and sport	—	—	151	370	229	270	276
Other	2,480	1,115	364	528	393	940	982
Teaching Cadres							
Total	**6,482**	**5,590**	**5,945**	**6,596**	**6,535**	**7,216**	**6,033**
Mining and petroleum	155	185	215	288	289	245	223
Electric power and electrotechniques	75	163	206	269	231	280	231
Metallurgy and machine construction	443	450	563	645	643	817	451
Chemistry	56	65	72	97	101	94	159
Lumber industry	119	121	133	125	117	118	95
Light industry	164	177	201	296	228	222	241
Food industry	28	67	98	144	157	211	174
Constructions and construction materials	116	374	409	546	516	557	494
Transport and telecommunication	125	182	185	188	267	387	352
Agriculture and silviculture	588	671	839	1,094	1,050	1,169	1,160
Culture and art [1]	140	166	321	542	561	595	482
Economics (commerce, finance, statistics, and cooperatives)	1,662	1,757	1,598	1,522	1,328	1,462	996
Sanitation	200	303	376	498	567	650	638
Physical culture and sport	51	78	83	97	96	102	83
Other	2,560	831	646	245	384	307	254

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 370–71, table 182 ("Technical secondary education").

[1] Including polygraphy.

registered that year in the fields of electric power and electrotechnology (table 19).

A similar situation existed in the technical schools. They had a total registration during 1959–60 of 32,151. The day students numbered 30,593, and of these, 12,898 were in the various fields of "culture and arts," 5,456 in economics, and 5,836 in health and sanitation. As in the technical schools for master craftsmen, the number of students registered for electric power and electrotechnology was small—only 734 (table 21).

The total number of vocational schools of the various types in 1948–49 was 965, including 511 for apprentices. By 1959–60 the

Table 21.—Number of schools, pupils, and graduates in technical education, by field of training: 1955–56 through 1959–60

[0 indicates that course did not exist or that there were no graduates]
[— indicates that source did not show any figures.]

Field and year	Schools	Pupils		Graduates
		Total	Day school	
Total				
1955–56	94	15,233	13,716	3,464
1956–57	110	16,513	14,427	5,836
1957–58	133	18,903	16,973	4,403
1958–59	153	25,103	23,014	5,805
1959–60	184	32,151	30,593	—
Mining and Petroleum				
1955–56	3	137	137	20
1956–57	3	72	72	0
1957–58	1	63	63	0
1958–59	5	273	273	79
1959–60	6	407	407	—
Metallurgy and Machine Construction				
1955–56	2	176	176	0
1956–57	5	422	422	77
1957–58	6	841	841	312
1958–59	14	1,211	1,211	518
1959–60	17	1,515	1,515	—
Electric Power and Electro-techniques				
1955–56	0	0	0	0
1956–57	2	147	147	0
1957–58	2	348	348	62
1958–59	4	505	505	158
1959–60	4	734	734	—
Chemistry				
1955–56	1	165	120	0
1956–57	3	355	329	74
1957–58	5	551	551	196
1958–59	8	730	730	300
1959–60	10	1,285	1,285	—
Light Industry				
1955–56	2	67	67	0
1956–57	2	68	68	27
1957–58	1	42	42	18
1958–59	6	235	235	22
1959–60	6	279	279	—
Food Industry				
1955–56	2	203	203	52
1956–57	2	197	197	152
1957–58	1	23	23	21
1958–59	0	0	0	0
1959–60	2	57	57	—
Constructions and Construction Material				
1955–56	1	361	361	117
1956–57	4	403	403	192
1957–58	6	480	480	99
1958–59	5	612	612	187
1959–60	11	976	976	—
Transport and Telecommunication				
1955–56	12	1,676	1,676	415
1956–57	16	1,820	1,820	937
1957–58	9	1,240	1,240	558
1958–59	9	1,032	1,032	573
1959–60	11	984	984	—
Agriculture and Silviculture				
1955–56	14	924	924	0
1956–57	13	1,174	1,174	469
1957–58	15	996	966	572
1958–59	12	877	868	341
1959–60	17	1,423	1,423	—

Table 21.—Number of schools, pupils, and graduates in technical education, by field of training: 1955–56 through 1959–60—Continued

Field and year	Schools	Pupils		Graduates
		Total	Day school	
Economics (Commerce, Statistics, and Finances)				
1955–56	20	4,108	3,015	848
1956–57	18	5,064	3,153	1,525
1957–58	23	4,325	2,536	1,398
1958–59	22	5,166	2,252	1,393
1959–60	32	5,456	4,331	—
Culture and the Arts [1]				
1955–56	13	3,083	2,924	262
1956–57	21	3,865	3,716	281
1957–58	33	7,132	7,021	474
1958–59	44	10,553	10,400	609
1959–60	44	12,898	12,825	—
Health and Sanitation				
1955–56	15	3,689	3,689	1,402
1956–57	14	2,354	2,354	1,770
1957–58	28	2,597	2,597	515
1958–59	21	3,652	3,652	1,471
1959–60	21	5,836	5,836	—
Physical Culture and Sports				
1955–56	2	118	118	0
1956–57	2	80	80	71
1957–58	0	0	0	0
1958–59	0	0	0	0
1959–60	0	0	0	0
Other Fields				
1955–56	7	526	306	348
1956–57	5	492	492	261
1957–58	3	265	265	178
1958–59	3	257	244	154
1959–60	3	291	291	—

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul Statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 372–73, table 183 ("Technical education").

[1] Includes the special schools of the Department of Culture.

total had declined to 773. Of these, 505 were vocational schools for apprentices, 184 were technical schools, and 84 were technical schools for master craftsmen. Available statistics do not show how many were independent vocational schools and how many were merely sections or branches of other schools.

The total number of vocational school instructors declined from 10,796 in 1948–49 to 9,436 in 1959–60. Although the number teaching in technical schools decreased from 6,482 to 3,355 during that period, the number teaching in vocational schools for apprentices increased from 4,314 to 6,081. Again, available statistics do not show how many of the reported teachers were full-time employees in vocational education and how many were only part-time.

Chapter VI

Higher Education

Introduction

IN RUMANIA, as in the rest of the Communist world, higher education has the dual aim of preparing the highly skilled technical personnel needed by the planned economy and of creating an ideologically and politically reliable intelligentsia responsive to the requirements of Party and Government. A full-scale drive toward achieving these aims was launched in 1948 soon after the major nationalization programs had been enacted. It involved first of all a gradual elimination of "unreliable" students and teachers and their replacement with "loyal elements of proletarian origin." Concomitantly, the curricula and syllabi were changed by placing a greater emphasis on science and technology and on the teaching of Marxism-Leninism. Most of the older textbooks were withdrawn, as were teaching aids of a "bourgeois" nature. To replace these textbooks, many Russian ones, especially those in technical fields, were translated into Rumanian. In other fields, notably the humanities, teaching continued to be based on mimeographed courses prepared by the instructors themselves. As late as 1959, for example, there were still no printed texts for Rumanian history, Rumanian geography, Rumanian literature, or world literature.[1]

The student associations were reorganized and the students encouraged to join the Communist youth organization.[2] As an added inducement to "reliability", students now find many available scholarships. In 1961, for example, scholarships were held by over 60 percent of the student body.

To stimulate development of the physical and natural sciences, the polytechnical schools were transformed into polytechnical institutes; and two new institutes, the Institute of Mines of Petroşani and the

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[1] Speech by Ilie Iliescu at the Second National Conference of the Student Associations. *Scinteia*, Bucharest, Feb. 20, 1959. In the same speech he also mentioned that none of the eight subjects taught in the Department of the Technology of Machine Constructions of the Polytechnical Institute of Braşov (Oraşul Stalin) had any printed or mimeographed texts.

[2] See p. 184ff.

Institute of Petroleum and Gases of Bucharest, have been established. As a gesture towards the large Hungarian minority in the country, special sections with Hungarian as the language of instruction were established at the Dr. Petru Groza Agronomic Institute of Cluj, the Ion Andreescu Institute of Plastic Arts of Cluj, and the Gh. Dima Conservatory of Cluj. Also, as early as 1944–45, two exclusively Hungarian institutions of higher learning had been established in Transylvania: the Bolyai University of Cluj[3] and the Medical-Pharmaceutical Institute of Tîrgu-Mureş (Marosvásárhely). As with all other Rumanian schools, however, education in these Hungarian units is based on the Marxist concept of nationalism, that is, an education "national in form but socialist in content."

In spite of the great efforts of the State, many teachers and students continued to harbor what the Communists call "tendencies of bourgeois nationalism," and were less than enthusiastic about gearing their studies and talents towards the technical requirements of the economy. In June 1956 the Party found it necessary to issue new directives relating to the political and ideological education of the students.[4] A year later this was followed by a decree completely revising the system of higher education along Soviet lines.

The 1957 reorganization act envisioned the following measures for improving Rumanian higher education:

★correlation of education with the practical requirements of the various branches of the economy and of "culture"

★improvement of the teaching of social sciences

★"improvement" of the social composition of students

★"improvement" of educational and political activities among students

★raising teachers' qualifications

★increasing financial allocations for administration of institutions of higher learning.[5]

Although increasing attention is being given to the polytechnical and political education of students, the general principles for guiding the organization, structure, and functions of the institutions of higher learning in Rumania have remained basically unchanged.

General Principles

Rumanian institutions of higher learning have a basic responsibility to do the following:

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[3] For reasons going back to the Hungarian Revolution of 1956, Bolyai University was amalgamated in July 1959 with the V. Babeş University, also of Cluj. See p. 116ff.

[4] See p. 186ff.

[5] Decision No. 1003/1957. See item 56 of the bibiolography in the present publication

★Organize didactical and methodological activities in order to assure the preparation of highly skilled specialists capable of making use of the newest achievements in science and to give first place to the achievements of Soviet science and technology.

★Assure the ideological and political education of the students and teachers on the basis of the teachings of Marx, Engels, Lenin and Stalin . . .

★Evaluate the scientific, literary, and artistic contributions of the scientists, writers, and artists of the Rumanian People's Republic . . .

★Prepare courses, textbooks, and teaching material at the level of modern science, corresponding with all requirements for the ideological and political education of youth.

★Organize scientific research so that it may contribute to the solution of the most important problems relating to the building of socialism . . .

★Raise teachers' qualifications and ensure the training of scientific and teaching cadres.

★Popularize scientific and technological advances based on the experience of *stachanoviști* and innovators in the USSR and the Rumanian People's Republic.[6]

Organizational Structure

The organizational structure of the Rumanian institutions of higher learning closely resembles that of their Soviet prototype. All of them operate under the guidance and supervision of the Ministry of Education.[7] The ones sponsored by an economic ministry are also responsible to this ministry.

The executive organ of the institution is the academic or scientific council (*consiliul științific*). The universities are headed by rectors (equivalent to the American college president or chancellor) assisted by prorectors, and the institutes by directors aided by assistant directors. Each institution is composed of a number of faculties (equivalent to the American "schools"),[8] which in turn, are divided into departments (*catedre*).[9]

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[6] Decision No. 3886 of Nov. 17, 1953 of the Council of Ministers. Ministerul Justiției. *Colecție de legi, decrete, hotărîri și dispoziții 1953 1 Noiembrie–31 Decembrie.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1953. p. 114.

[7] The extreme centralization which characterized the Ministry's control over the institutions seems to have eased a bit during the late 1950's. The rectors' jurisdiction has been widened, enabling them to solve certain problems on a local level. (See article 33 of Decision No. 1003/1957.) Beginning January 1, 1957, the universities and the other institutions of higher learning have had sole responsibility for problems relating to registration, attendance, graduation, re-examination, examination postponement, and sick leave, for both day-school and correspondence-school students. *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, (Journal of Education), Bucharest, Jan. 11, 1957.

[8] The terms "faculty" (*facultate*) and "school" are used interchangeably.

[9] See "Statutul tip al instituțiilor de învățămînt superior" (The Standard Statute of the Institutions of Higher Learning) as approved by Decision No. 3886 of the Council of Ministers on Nov. 17, 1953, in Ministerul Justiției, *Colecție de legi, decrete, hotărîri și dispoziții 1953, 1 Noiembrie–31 Decembrie.* Bucharest: Editura științifică, 1953. p. 113–26.

The Scientific Council

The Scientific Council is composed of the rector (or director), the prorectors (assistant directors), deans of faculties, chairmen of departments, the administrative director, the representative of the Communist Party organization, a number of faculty members, and representatives of enterprises. Headed by the rector, it meets at least once a month at a date set by him. The responsibilities of the Council are considerable. It supervises the annual and semestrial program and reviews faculty and departmental reports. It further studies the plans of scientific research undertaken within the framework of the schools, including the work of candidates for the "aspirature" or the doctorate. It submits proposals to the Ministry of Education concerning the appointment of faculty members and department chairmen. Finally, the Council has jurisdiction over the granting of higher degrees.

The Rector

The rector (or director) is appointed and dismissed by the Minister of Education.[10] He is responsible for the professional and political qualifications of the staff and for the organization and performance of all educational, political, and scientific activities conducted within the framework of the institution. He alone has the power of exmatriculation and ultimate responsibility for policies of admission, graduation, and scholarship grants. He is assisted by prorectors (assistant directors), who are also appointed and dismissed by the Minister of Education, though they are responsible only to the rector. They guide the academic and scientific activities of the various schools and departments, supervise the preparation of the programs and syllabi (including the practical work of students in production), organize scientific conferences, and replace the rectors in case of their absence. The rector is assisted further by an administrative director, especially as to questions of administration and finances. The latter's responsibility also includes equipping and supplying laboratories, shops, canteens, and dormitories.

The Faculties

The faculties are headed by deans (*decani*), who are appointed and dismissed by the Minister of Education in the same manner as the

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[10] When the institution is sponsored by an economic ministry, the Minister of Education acts in conjunction with the head of that ministry.

Table 22.—Number of faculties and students in day and evening sessions and correspondence courses of higher education institutions, by locality: 1938–39 and 1948–49 through 1959–60

[0 indicates that institution did not exist]

Item	1938–39	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Total													
Faculties	**33**	**129**	**135**	**136**	**142**	**150**	**155**	**144**	**127**	**112**	**98**	**95**	**88**
Students	**26,489**	**48,676**	**48,615**	**53,007**	**61,123**	**71,513**	**80,593**	**78,860**	**77,633**	**81,206**	**80,919**	**67,849**	**61,980**
Bucharest													
Faculties	13	44	52	54	66	74	73	70	61	55	46	43	40
Students	17,791	28,423	27,368	29,619	33,912	42,588	46,531	46,389	44,352	46,537	45,944	37,005	32,488
Cluj													
Faculties	7	32	30	31	28	31	32	28	23	19	19	20	15
Students	4,142	8,365	8,200	9,143	9,589	10,309	11,725	10,687	10,893	12,400	13,178	12,012	11,220
Iaşi													
Faculties	11	22	23	23	20	20	21	19	16	14	12	12	13
Students	4,093	4,665	4,956	5,403	6,918	7,216	8,498	8,460	8,479	9,002	9,023	8,171	8,464
Timişoara													
Faculties	2	14	14	12	10	6	9	8	9	9	8	8	8
Students	463	3,655	4,206	4,137	4,563	3,544	4,469	4,474	4,950	5,045	4,910	4,260	4,164
Braşov (Oraşul Stalin)													
Faculties	0	2	2	2	2	3	6	5	5	3	2	2	3
Students	0	1,482	1,076	913	1,529	1,944	3,582	3,540	3,477	3,155	2,965	2,322	1,976
Craiova													
Faculties	0	2	2	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	2	2
Students	0	374	664	1,005	1,128	1,310	1,454	1,415	1,741	1,689	1,531	1,213	1,453

Galați													
Faculties	0	1	1	1	4	4	5	4	4	4	3	3	2
Students	0	147	162	254	788	894	1,346	1,340	1,706	1,660	1,424	1,224	781
Tîrgu Mureș													
Faculties	0	5	5	5	3	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	3
Students	0	841	889	927	891	918	1,012	1,127	1,100	1,035	930	788	727
Petroșani													
Faculties	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
Students	0	132	178	236	287	685	990	466	520	410	1,014	854	707
Arad													
Faculties	0	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	1	0	0	0
Students	0	178	393	637	759	1,471	986	962	415	273	0	0	0
Brad													
Faculties	0	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Students	0	112	135	204	245	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Cîmpulung Moldovenesc													
Faculties	0	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Students	0	183	194	268	300	415	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Constanța													
Faculties	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Students	0	119	194	262	214	219	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

SOURCE OF DATA: Figures are derived from *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1959* and *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcția centrală de statistică, 1959 and 1960. p. 278–79 and 386–87, respectively.

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[1] The institutes of Brad, Cîmpulung Moldovenesc, and Constanța were amalgamated with other institutes of the same nature in other university centers.

rectors and prorectors. The dean conducts the academic and scientific activity of the particular faculty and the various departments composing it, and supervises the faculty members' discipline and the students' practical work and study program. Most Rumanian universities have the following faculties: mathematics-physics; chemistry; natural sciences-geography; law; and philology, history, and philosophy. The University of Bucharest has separate faculties of geography-geology, history, philosophy, and philology.[11]

The total number of faculties in the country has tended to vary along with changes in the State's educational policies. Although only 33 faculties were in existence during 1938–39, the number reached 129 in 1948–49. This considerable growth reflected both an increase in the number of insitutions of higher learning and a greater fragmentation of the existing faculties. By 1953–54 the number had reached an all-time high of 155. Following the 1957 reorganization of higher education, however, many faculties were amalgamated or completely eliminated, so that by 1959–60 their number was again reduced, this time to 88.[12]

The Departments

Each faculty has specialized departments headed by department chairmen (*şefi de catedră*). These chairmen, usually selected by the Scientific Council, come from the full professors or other members of the department. Normally, a department is composed of the chairman and a number of professors, docents, instructors, assistants (postgraduate students), and at times research specialists. The chairman is responsible for the departmental-level implementation of the program which the rector has approved and for the professional and political training of the department's staff. Departmental activities, including review of manuscripts, theses, and research and political programs, are discussed in regular monthly or bimonthly meetings.

Types of Institutions

Rumanian higher education as reorganized in 1957 is composed of the following major types of institutions: universities, technical-industrial and polytechnical institutes, medical and medical-pharma-

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[11] For the faculties of the various types of institutions of higher learning see tables 23–28, and IV.

[12] Owing mainly to the State's decision to classify the 3-year teacher-training institutes as institutions of higher learning, in 1961–62 the number of faculties again increased, this time to 151. See table IV.

Table 23.—Number of years of study required at the three universities, by faculty: 1959–60

[— indicates that source did not show any figures]

University	*Faculty*	*Number of years of study*
C. I. Parhon University of Bucharest (*Universitatea "C. I. Parhon" din Bucureşti*)	Mathematics-Physics	5
	Chemistry	5
	Natural Sciences	—
	Geology-Geography	5
	Juridical Sciences	4
	Philosophy	5
	Philology	5
	History	5
Alexandru Ion Cuza University of Iaşi (*Universitatea "Alexandru Ion Cuza" din Iaşi*)	Mathematics-Physics	5
	Chemistry	5
	Natural Sciences-Geography	5
	Juridical Sciences	4
	Philology	—
	History and Philosophy	—
Babeş-Bolyai University of Cluj (*Universitatea "Babeş-Bolyai" din Cluj*)[1]	Mathematics-Physics	5
	Chemistry	5
	Natural Sciences-Geography	5
	Juridical Sciences	4
	Philology	5
	History and Philosophy	5

SOURCE OF DATA: *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Aug. 9–10, 1957 and Sept. 6, 1960.

[1] A Faculty of Economics was established in 1961–62. *Development of Education in the Rumanian People's Republic in the 1961–1962 School Year. Report Submitted to the 25th International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1962.* Bucharest: Ministry of Education of the Rumanian People's Republic, 1962. p. 33.

ceutical institutes, institutes of physical education, agronomic institutes, economic institutes, art institutes, and teacher-training institutes.

In 1960 Rumania had 38 institutions of higher learning, most of them located in Bucharest, Cluj, and Iaşi. Of the total 88 faculties (schools) and 61,980 students during 1959–60, 68 faculties and 52,172 students were concentrated in these three cities. The remainder were scattered in six cities, with Timişoara having 8 faculties and 4,164 students.[13]

Universities

Highest on the scale in terms of rank and reputation are the three universities, considered as centers of general theoretical study. Of the three, the C. I. Parhon University of Bucharest is the largest (1958–59 enrollment, 9,860)[14] and perhaps the most famous. Founded in 1864, it was renamed after World War II for the noted Rumanian endocrinologist. It has eight faculties (schools), with a schooling period that varies between 4 and 5 years. The Alexandru Ion Cuza University of Iaşi,[15] founded in 1860, has six faculaties. In 1958–59 it enrolled 2,756 students.[16]

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[13] Although all the institutions of higher learning are State-controlled, the institutes are sponsored by a particular branch of the economy, such as industry, transport, trade, or agriculture.

In 1961–62 the faculties totaled 151 and the students 83,749. They were divided as follows: *Faculties*—Bucharest 50, Iaşi 23, Cluj 24, and Timişoara 16. *Students*—Bucharest, 41,486, Iaşi 12,039, Cluj 12,979, and Timişoara 7,137. See table 194 in *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1962*. Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1962. p. 400–01.

Until mid-1959 there were two nominally independent universities in the city of Cluj: the Victor Babeş University (formerly Ferdinand University, founded in 1919), with a 1958–59 enrollment of 4,089;[17] and the Bolyai University, established after the August 23, 1944 armistice which ended Rumania's participation in the Axis Alliance. Named for the Hungarian mathematician János Bolyai and having in 1958–59 an enrollment of 2,317, the latter university used Hungarian as the language of instruction.

The Hungarian Revolt of 1956 caused considerable unrest in this Magyar-oriented polyglot city of Cluj. The unrest was especially noticeable among the Bolyai University students, who staged spontaneous, if not violent, demonstrations in sympathy with the plight of their compatriots in Budapest. Although immediately repressed, the demonstrations revealed the inadequacy of the Communist indoctrination and nationalities policy.

The State's inability to eradicate what the Communists call "bourgeois nationalism and chauvinism" prompted a reconsideration of the original idea of allowing the concomitant functioning of two universities differing not only in language of instruction but also in general orientation. Demands for eliminating this anomaly became increasingly stronger in the months after the Hungarian Revolt, and the first concrete steps were taken at the Second National Conference of the Union of Student Associations, February 19–22, 1959. A commission, subsequently established to study amalgamation of the two universities and reorganization of the bilingual Petru Groza Agronomic Institute, was composed of instructors from both universities and representatives of the Party and the Ministry of Education. The commission's recommendations were approved by the faculties and student bodies early in July 1959.[18] Accordingly, the two universities were united in what is now known as Babeş-Bolyai University.

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[14] *The World of Learning 1959–60.* London: Europa Publications, 1960, 10th ed. p. 792–93.

[15] For a detailed history of this university see St. Bîrsănescu, "Universitatea Al. I. Cuza şi contribuţia ei la dezvoltarea învăţămîntului din ţara noastră" (The Alexandru Ion Cuza University and Its Contribution to the Development of Education in Our Country). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, IX:5:69–80, September-October 1960. See also *Contribuţii la istoria dezvoltării universităţii din Iaşi 1860–1960* (Contributions to the History of the Development of the University of Iaşi, 1860–1960). Bucharest: 1960, 2 vols., p. 332 and 394, respectively.

[16] *The World of Learning 1959–60, op. cit.*

[17] *Ibid.*

This new university is expected to be more effective in its "fight against all manifestations of nationalism and chauvinism . . . and in its program to educate the students in the spirit of socialist patriotism and internationalism." In terms of the language of instruction, some of the courses are offered in both Rumanian and Hungarian, and others exclusively either in Rumanian or Hungarian. Thus, for example, the courses offered by the pedagogical sections of the faculties of mathematics-physics, chemistry, history-philosophy, and natural sciences-geography, as well as the foreign language section of the philology faculty and the social science sections of all faculties, are given in both Rumanian and Hungarian. Courses in the Hungarian and Hungarian literature sections of the faculty of philology are given only in Hungarian, and those in the Rumanian and Rumanian literature sections of the philology faculty, as well as those on Rumanian history and geography in all faculties, are given exclusively in Rumanian.[19]

Technical-Industrial and Polytechnical Institutes

Perhaps no other field of higher education received as little attention in pre-World War I Rumania as that of science and engineering. Basically a backward agricultural country relying on export of raw materials and farm commodities in exchange for finished products of the West, Rumania of that period emphasized only those aspects of engineering for which she had the greatest need: civil engineering (roads and bridges), agronomy, and forestry. Specialists in these fields were trained at the National School of Bridges and Roads (*Şcoala naţională de poduri şi şosele*), founded towards the end of the 19th century. In June 1920 the school was transformed into the Polytechnical School (*Şcoala politehnică*) of Bucharest with four separate departments: Constructions, Electromechanics, Mines and Metallurgy, and Industrial Chemistry.

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[18] "Adunarea cadrelor didactice din institutele de învăţămînt superior din Cluj" (Meeting of the Teaching Cadres of the Institutions of Higher Learning of Cluj). *Scînteia*, Bucharest, July 3, 1959. Also "Adunarea studenţilor din institutele de învăţămînt superior din Cluj" (Meeting of the Students of the Institutions of Higher Learning of Cluj). *Scînteia*, July 4, 1959.

[19] The rectors of the various institutions of higher learning and the heads of the faculties and departments are listed in *The World of Learning, 1960–61, 11th ed.* London: Europa Publications, 1961. p. 831–33.

Table 24.—Number of years of study required at the technical-industrial and polytechnical institutes of higher learning, by institute and faculty: 1959–60

Institute	*Faculty*	*Number of years of study*
Polytechnic Institute of Bucharest (*Institutul politehnic din Bucureşti*)	Electrotechniques	5
	Electronics and Communications	5
	Mechanical Engineering [1]	5
	Industrial Chemistry	5
	Energetics	5
	Metallurgy	5
	Transport	5
Polytechnic Institute of Timişoara (*Institutul politehnic din Timişoara*)	Electrotechniques	5
	Mechanical Engineering	5
	Construction	5½
	Industrial Chemistry	5
Polytechnic Institute of Iaşi (*Institutul politehnic din Iaşi*)	Electrotechniques	5
	Mechanical Engineering	5
	Industrial Chemistry	5
	Constructions	5½
	Light Industry	5
Polytechnic Institute of Cluj (*Institutul politehnic din Cluj*)	Mechanical Engineering	5
	Construction	5½
Polytechnic Institute of Braşov (*Institutul politehnic din Braşov*)	Mechanical Engineering	5
	Forestry	5
	Lumber Industry	—
Polytechnic Institute of Galaţi (*Institutul politehnic din Galaţi*)	Mechanical Engineering	5
	Technology of Food Products and Fishery	5
	Soil Improvement and Organization of Agricultural Land	5
Institute of Constructions of Bucharest (*Institutul de construcţii din Bucureşti*)	Constructions	5½
	Installations and Equipment	5½
	Hydrotechnics	5½
	Roads and Bridges	5½
Institute of Geology, Petroleum, and Gas of Bucharest (*Institutul de petrol, gaze şi geologie din Bucureşti*)	Technical Geology	5
	Exploitation of Petroleum and Gas Deposits	5
	Technology and Chemical Transformation of Petroleum and Gases	5
	Petroleum Machinery and Equipment	5
Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej Institute of Mines of Petroşani (*Institutul de mine "Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej" din Petroşani*)	Mining	5½
	Mining Electronics	5½
Ion Mincu Institute of Architecture of Bucharest (*Institutul de arhitectură "Ion Mincu" din Bucureşti*)	Architecture and Urbanism	6

Table 24—Number of years of study required at the technical-industrial and polytechnical institutes of higher learning, by institute and faculty: 1959–60 —Continued

Institute	*Faculty*	*Number of years of study*
Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej Institute of Railways of Bucharest (*Institutul de căi ferate "Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej" din Bucureşti*)	Mechanical Engineering	5
	Railways Construction	5½
	Railway Operation	5

SOURCE OF DATA: *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Aug. 9–10, 1957 and Sept. 6, 1960.

[1] In 1961–62 the Faculty of Mechanical Engineering was divided into two faculties: Faculty of Mechanical Engineering and Faculty of Machine-Building Technology. *Development of Education in the Rumanian People's Republic in the 1961–62 School Year. Report Submitted to the 25th International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1962.* Bucharest: Ministry of Education in the Rumanian People's Republic, 1962. p. 33.

A few months later (November 1920) a Polytechnical School was established in Timişoara, with departments of electromechanics and mines and metallurgy. In addition to these independent institutions, the Universities of Iaşi and Bucharest gave increasing attention to science and engineering. Thus, the School of Science of the University of Iaşi was enlarged in 1910–11 to include a special department of applied electrical engineering.[20] A similar department, established at Bucharest in 1913, began functioning only during the 1919–20 academic year. Technical education received a further impetus when the facilities of Cluj were acquired following the incorporation of Transylvania into Rumania.

After 1948, the polytechnical schools were transformed into polytechnical institutes (*institute politehnice*) and placed under the Ministry of Industry's control and guidance. The Ministry of Education retained control only over the hiring of teachers and the unfolding of academic activities. Soon thereafter a Machines and Electrical Equipment Institute (*Institut de maşini şi aparate electrice*) was established in Craiova to serve the needs of the electric power plant built in that city. After 1957, however, this institute was incorporated into the Polytechnical Institute of Bucharest.

During the 1951–52 academic year the polytechnical institutes were placed under the jurisdiction of the State Committee on Higher Education (*Comitetul de stat pentru învăţămîntul superior*), which later became the Ministry of Higher Education (*Ministerul învăţămîntului superior*).[21]

With increasing stress on science and technology, the network and scope of the technical-industrial institutes of higher learning have experienced considerable growth. New institutes have been established in Braşov (Oraşul Stalin), Bucharest, Galaţi, and Petroşani.[22]

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[20] For greater detail on electro-technical education in Rumania see Constantin Dinculescu *and* Ion S. Antoniu, "Evoluţia învăţămîntului electrotehnic superior în perioada 1944–1959" (The Evolution of Higher Electro-Technical Education During 1944–1959). *Electrotehnica* (Electrotechnology), Bucharest, August 1959, p. 303–06.

[21] *Ibid*, p. 304.

The older institutes have been expanded to keep pace with the advancement in science. The Polytechnical Institute of Bucharest, for example, established a section of nuclear technology in 1957–58 and an electronics and automation section in 1959–60.[23]

The training of "engineer economists."—With the inauguration of ambitious economic plans, more and more attention is being paid to the preparation of so-called "engineer economists." These are expected to be well versed not only in the strictly technical aspects of their specialization, but also in the practical application of their knowledge to production in terms of economics. This involves being familiar with methods for increasing labor productivity and reducing costs, and with planning and accounting. Beginning with the 1958–59 academic year, the teaching of the various economic subjects in the industrial and technical fields was increased from 45 to 200–220 hours.[24] Special departments of "technology and economics" were established at the technical institutes, each of which has 5½ years of required study.

Economist-engineers are also trained in special 2-year postgraduate schools (*învăţămînt postuniversitar*), which have become increasingly important since 1957.[25] The first of these schools began functioning during the 1958–59 academic year.[26] Placed under the jurisdiction of the polytechnical institutes, these postgraduate schools accepted only 130 engineers during the first year. These were selected from among the ones with at least 5 years of experience in production who had demonstrated distinct abilities for leadership in the enterprises, the central economic organizations, and the planning and research institutes.

The candidates are selected by the ministries, the central organizations, and the executive committees of the people's councils on the basis of the recommendations submitted by the industrial and agricultural enterprises or research and planning institutes, in agreement with the Party and the particular trade union organization. The Ministry of Education makes up a list of the selected candidates, which is then submitted to the institute of higher learning where the admittance examination is given.

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[22] Jurisdiction over the Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej Institute of Mines of Petroşani and the Ion Mincu Institute of Architecture of Bucharest was transferred in 1957 from the sponsoring economic ministries to the Ministry of Education. At the same time the Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej Institute of Railways became affiliated with the Polytechnical Institute of Bucharest. (Article 34 of Decision 1003/1957.)

[23] Aurelia Apostolescu. "Unele probleme ale învăţămîntului tehnic superior" (Some Problems of Higher Technical Education). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XL:3:30–[illegible]1. March 1960.

[24] *Ibid.*

[25] The establishment of these schools was stipulated in article 12 of Decision No. 1003/1957.

[26] The schools were established by virtue of Decision No. 325 of March 16, 1958. For text see Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii. 1958 1 Martie–30 Aprilie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, p. 85–88.

Beginning with the 1961–62 academic year, engineer-economists are being trained in day and evening schools and through correspondence courses. In the day schools, the schooling period is 18 months plus 6 months to complete a project fulfilling the diploma requirements. In the evening and correspondence schools, the schooling period is 30 months, of which the last 6 are devoted to the diploma work. The research projects are carried out in the enterprises where the candidates normally work or to which they are assigned especially for this purpose. During their schooling period and diploma work, the day-school students receive their regular pay from the enterprise or institute from which they come. Students registered in the correspondence courses are offered, in addition to an extended paid pre-examination leave, periodic preparatory courses lasting from 30 to 90 days annually. The faculty is recruited by the Ministry of Education from among specialists employed in industry, government, or higher education.[27]

Medical and Medical-Pharmaceutical Institutes

The foundations of medical education in Rumania were laid in 1857, when the National School of Medicine and Pharmacy (*Şcoala naţională de medicină şi farmacie*) was established under the guidance and support of Nicolae Kreţulescu. First headed by Carol Davilla, the school was transformed in 1869 into the School of Medicine (*Facultatea de medicină*) of the University of Bucharest. Soon afterwards a medical school was established at the University of Iaşi and, with the incorporation of Transylvania into Rumania in 1918, a third medical school was acquired under the aegis of the University of Cluj. Two additional medical schools were established after the end of Rumania's participation in the Axis Alliance (August 23, 1944). One of these is in Tîrgu-Mureş (Marosvásárhely), with Hungarian as the language of instruction; the other is in Timişoara.

The medical schools operated under the pre-World War II system until 1948, when they were transformed by the Educational Reform Act into five independent medical or medical-pharmaceutical institutes, the latter known popularly as IMF (*Institute medico-farmaceutice*).

The number of yearly admissions to these institutes is determined by the Government, depending on the number of available vacancies and on the country's need of physicians, dentists, or pharmacists. Attendance at classes and at practical work in clinics is compulsory.

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[27] For further details on the revised system of postgraduate studies for engineer-economists see Decision No. 649 of October 23, 1961 in Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1961 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1962, p. 62–66.

Table 25.—Basic curriculum of the medical institutes: 1956–57

First year	Second year	Third year	Fourth year	Fifth year	Sixth year
Medical Physics Medical Chemistry Biology Parasitology Anatomy Physiology Social Sciences Russian Language Physical Education	Physiology Histology Biochemistry Anatomy Social Sciences Russian Language Physical Education	Microbiology Morbid Anatomy Physiopathology Medical and Surgical Semeiotics Topographical Anatomy Operative Surgery Social Sciences	Clinical Medicine Clinical Surgery Pharmacology Hygiene Clinical Neurology Clinical Psychiatry	Clinical Medicine Clinical Surgery Clinical Dermato-venereology Contagious Diseases and Epidemiology Clinical Radiology Clinical Ophthalmology Clinical Oto-rhino-laryngology	Clinical Medicine Organization of Health Protection History of Medicine Clinical Obstetrics and Gynecology Clinical Pediatrics

SOURCE OF DATA: Herta Haase *and* Seymour M. Rosen. *Education in Rumania (Rumanian People's Republic).* Washington: U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education, July 1960. p. 14. *World Directory of Medical Schools.* Geneva: World Health Organization, 1957. p. 220–22.

The required period of study in the medical institutes is 6 years and in the dental and pharmacological, 5.

After completing the last year of studies, the students are given a State examination covering the principal subjects of their future specialty. The successful candidates receive the diploma of *medic* (physician), which also serves as a license to practice. The degree of Doctor of Medicine (*Doctor în medicină*) is obtained by taking additional specialized courses and examinations and successfully completing the dissertation requirements.[28]

The curriculum and program of the medical institutes have changed considerably. Instead of the earlier emphasis on general medicine alone, the institutes now offer courses in four areas: general medicine, pediatrics, stomatology, and hygiene.

Like prospective students of polytechnical institutes, students desiring to major in pharmacology must complete at least 1 year of practical training at a pharmacy and pass a State examination testing their practical knowledge before they are admitted to the academic course work. The curriculum and study programs of the various medical and medical-pharmaceutical institutes are fairly uniform, especially in the first few years of professional training. In the field of medicine, however, the curriculum becomes varied and in the fourth year it is specialized.

Graduates of these medical and medical-pharmaceutical institutes may pursue their studies for specialization in the Institute for the

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[28] For further details see p. 153ff.

Upgrading and Specialization of Physicians and Pharmacists (*Institutul de perfecţionare şi specializare a medicilor şi farmaciştilor*) of Bucharest with branch offices in Cluj and Iaşi.[29] This Institute forms an integral part of the network of institutions of higher learning, its teaching personnel having the same status as those of the regular medical-pharmaceutical institutes.[30]

The primary purpose of the Institute is to train and specialize the students and to acquaint them with the most recent advances in their respective fields. Lasting from 4 to 10 months, the courses are organized under the auspices of three departments: therapeutics, surgery, and the "organization of hygiene and sanitation." To help ease the lack of medical specialists in Rumania, the Institute offers a series of specialized courses ranging from neurology to toxicology.

Table 26.—Number of years of study required at the medical and medical-pharmaceutical institutes of higher learning, by institute and faculty: 1956–57

Institute	*Faculty*	*Number of years of study*
Medical-Pharmaceutical Institute of Bucharest (*Institutul medico-farmaceutic din Bucureşti*)	Medicine	6
	Stomatology	5
	Pharmacy	5
Medical-Pharmaceutical Institute of Cluj (*Institutul medico-farmaceutic din Cluj*)	Medicine	6
	Stomatology	5
	Pharmacy	5
Medical Institute of Iaşi (*Institutul de medicină din Iaşi*)	Medicine	6
Medical Institute of Timişoara (*Institutul de medicină din Timişoara*)	Medicine	6
Medical-Pharmaceutical Institute of Tîrgu-Mureş (*Institutul medico-farmaceutic din Tîrgu-Mureş*)	Medicine	6
	Pharmacy	5

SOURCE OF DATA: *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Aug. 9–10, 1957.

Beginning in 1954, opportunities for specialization were provided also on a local or regional level. The first steps were taken in Timişoara and Iasi, where a number of hospitals were equipped to facilitate the specialization of internes in the following 10 fields: internal medicine, infectious diseases, phtisiology, skin and venereal diseases, surgery, obstetrics and gynecology, oto-rhino-laryngology, ophthalmology, pediatrics and stomatology.

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[29] The IPSMF, as the Institute is popularly known, was established in 1952 by virtue of Decree No. 295 of the Council of Ministers. For more details on medical education in general and health protection in Rumania in particular consult T. Ilea, L. Grom, *and* P. Pruteanu, *eds.* *Organizarea ocrotirii sănătăţii* (The Organization of Health Protection). Bucharest: Editura-Medicală, 1956. 558 p.

[30] See article 36 of Decision No. 1003/1957.

Institutes of Physical Education

Specialization in physical education is provided by the Institute of Physical Culture and Sports (*Institutul de cultură fizică şi sport*) of Bucharest.[31] Since 1957 it has been under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education.[32]

Agronomic Institutes

Concomitantly with the gradual transformation of agriculture along "socialist" lines, the State has devoted more and more attention to developing agronomic institutes. With an original schooling period of 5½ years, the five agronomic institutes of the country supply the required number of experts in agriculture and animal husbandry, horticulture, and veterinary medicine. The Petru Groza Agronomic Institute of Cluj has both a Rumanian and a Hungarian section.

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[31] For details on the role of sports in Communist education see p. 190ff.

[32] See article 34 of Decision No. 1003 of 1957. For details on physical education and sports see p. 190ff.

Table 27.—Number of years of study required at the agronomic institutes of higher learning, by institute and faculty: 1957–58

Institute	*Faculty*	*Number of years of study*
Nicolae Bălcescu Agronomic Institute of Bucharest (*Institutul agronomic "Nicolae Bălcescu" din Bucureşti*)	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	[1] 5½
	Horticulture	5½
	Veterinary Medicine	5½
Ion Ionescu de la Brad Agronomic Institute of Iaşi (*Institutul agronomic "Ion Ionescu de la Brad" din Iaşi*)[2]	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	5½
	Horticulture	5½
	Land Improvement	5½
Petru Groza Agronomic Institute of Cluj (*Institutul agronomic "Petru Groza" din Cluj*)	Agriculture (Rumanian section)	5½
	Agriculture (Hungarian section)	5½
Tudor Vladimirescu Agronomic Institute of Craiova (*Institutul agronomic "Tudor Vladimirescu" din Craiova*)	Agriculture	5½
	Mechanization of Agriculture	5½
Agronomic Institute of Timişoara (*Institutul agronomic din Timişoara*)	Agriculture and Animal Husbandry	5½

SOURCE OF DATA: *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Aug. 9–10, 1957 and Sept. 6, 1960.

[1] See p. 125 of the present publication.

[2] A Faculty of Veterinary Medicine was established in 1961–62. *Development of Education in the Rumanian People's Republic in the 1961–1962 School Year. Report Submitted to the 25th International Conference on Public Education, Geneva, July 1962.* Bucharest: Ministry of Education of the Rumanian People's Republic, 1962. p. 33.

When the collectivization drive was completed in 1962, pressure increased for additional specialists in agriculture. With the number of agronomists and veterinarians admittedly small, the long-range plans foresee the annual training of 920 agronomists, 410 horticulturists, and 780 veterinarians. To speed up the educational process, the number of years of study has been reduced from 5½ to 5. In addition, the polytechnical and construction institutes have begun an intensive program for training the mechanical and hydrotechnical engineers needed by agriculture. The practice work system for these engineers has received added importance and it is geared to the particular machines in use during a given agricultural season.[33]

Economic Institutes

The abandonment of the free enterprise system in Rumania has made it necessary for the State to establish a group of specialists in the techniques and methods of the new guided economy. A special institute was consequently established to train the experts needed in planning and socialist finance and commerce. The V. I. Lenin Institute of Economic Sciences and Planning (*Institutul de ştiinţe economice şi planificare, V. I. Lenin*) was established in Bucharest during the mid-1940's.[34] Each of the four faculties—Political Economy and Planning; Finance, Credit, and Bookkeeping; Commerce; Statistics—requires 4 years of study.

Besides the Lenin Institute various technical institutes[35] also train specialists in socialist economics—the so-called "engineer-economists."

Art Institutes

The István Szentgyörgyi Institute is exclusively Hungarian, and the Ion Andreescu Institute of Plastic Arts and the Gh. Dima Conservatory of Cluj have Hungarian sections. In terms of enrollment, the art institutes are rather small. Of the total 1960 enrollment of 1,312, 465 were registered at the Ciprian Porumbescu Conservatory of Bucharest and only 38 at the Theater Institute of Tîrgu-Mureş.[36]

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[33] See section VII of Decision No. 428 of May 12, 1962. This Decision, "On the Development and Improvement of Agricultural Education," appeared in *Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne*, Bucharest, XI:14:102–24, May 23, 1962.

For additional information on agricultural education at lower levels, see p. 101ff. of the present publication.

[34] This institute was organized within the framework of a school of economics founded in 1913.

[35] See p. 120ff.

[36] *The World of Learning 1960–61, op. cit.*, p. 826–28.

Table 28.—Number of years of study required at the institutes of higher learning for the arts, by institute and faculty: 1957–58

Institute	*Faculty*	*Number of years of study*
I. L. Caragiale Institute of Theatrical Arts and Cinematography of Bucharest (*Institutul de artă teatrală şi cinematografică "I. L. Caragiale" din Bucureşti*)	Theater	[1] 5
Ciprian Porumbescu Conservatory of Bucharest (*Conservatorul Ciprian Porumbescu din Bucureşti*)	Instruments and Singing	5
N. Grigorescu Institute of Plastic Arts of Bucharest (*Institutul de arte plastice "N. Grigorescu" din Bucureşti*)	Plastic Arts	6
	Teaching of Plastic Arts	5
	Decorative Arts	6
Ion Andreescu Institute of Plastic Arts of Cluj (*Institutul de arte plastice "Ion Andreescu" din Cluj*)	Plastic and Decorative Arts	6
	Teaching of Plastic Arts	5
Gh. Dima Conservatory of Cluj (*Conservatorul "Gh. Dima" din Cluj*)	Instruments and Singing	5
	Composition, Conducting, Teaching	5–6
István Szentgyörgyi Theater Institute of Tîrgu-Mureş (*Institutul de teatru "Szentgyörgyi István" din Tîrgu-Mureş*)	Theater	5
Conservatory of Iaşi (*Conservatorul din Iaşi*)	Instruments and Singing	5
	Conducting, Chorus, and Teaching	6

SOURCE OF DATA: *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Aug. 9–10, 1957 and Sept. 8, 1960.

[1] According to Decision No. 660 of October 20, 1961, the Council of Ministers decided that beginning with the 1960–61 academic year the required number of years in the theater schools would be reduced from five to four. For an abbreviated text of the decision see Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1961, 1 Septembrie—31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1962. p. 61–62

Teacher-Training Institutes

Specialization and training in education are offered by the universities under the auspices of their schools of philology, philosophy, and history, and by the various teacher-training schools and institutes. The organization and programs of these schools and institutes are discussed in detail in chapter VII.

Admission Policy and Procedure

Like all other Rumanian education measures, instructions regulating admission to universities and other institutions of higher learning emanate from the Ministry of Education.[37] As a rule, admission to the first year of the regular day school sessions and correspondence courses is by competitive examination. The examinations may be taken by all citizens of Rumania who possess a maturity diploma from a high school of general education or a technical high school, have taken the State examinations in a teacher-training school, or are graduates of a "workers' faculty" (*Facultate muncitorească*) or of certain technical schools.[38]

The examinations may also be taken by graduates of the technical schools for master craftsmen and by craftsmen employed in production who have graduated from a school equivalent to the technical school for master craftsmen, if they fulfill certain additional requirements relating to enrollment and differential examinations.[39]

Competitive examinations for admission to correspondence courses may be taken by persons employed in production if they fulfill the requirements specified above and have a record of 2 years of employment. These examinations are also open to wage earners who have studied in schools no longer in existence but deemed equivalent to schools of general education.[40]

Graduates of technical schools[41] may also participate in the competitive examinations for admission to regular day schools, as may the alumni of technical secondary schools and of the teacher-training schools if they can prove—either through their respective enterprises or through the executive committees of the district (*raional*) people's councils—that they have completed 3 years of work in production.[42]

Admission examinations are not required of honor high school students holding the gold medal. Furthermore, without any of the other competitive examinations usually required, the day schools of higher learning will admit the children of workers, peasants, and master craftsmen who have fulfilled the regular study requirements, have been recommended by an enterprise or a people's council, and who have successfully passed the competitive examinations for scholarships offered by the "socialist enterprises" and/or the executive committees of the regional people's councils or the executive committee of the city of Bucharest.

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[37] Text is based on instructions regulating admission for the 1957–58 academic year, in *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, July 31, 1957. The instructions remained basically the same in subsequent years. For a list of the institutions of higher learning offering competitive admission examinations during the 1960–61 academic year, with specifications of the subjects in each school and department and with general instructions for prospective applicants, see Ministerul Învăţămîntului şi Culturii. *Admiterea în învăţămîntul superior* (Admission Into Higher Education). Bucharest: Litografia şi tipografia învăţămîntului, 1960. 95 p.

[38] Examinations may be taken only by graduates of those technical schools which were established under the provisions of Cabinet Decree No. 1, 434/1956.

[39] For 1957–58, for example, these were specified by Order No. 52/1957 and Instruction No. 39681/1957 of the Ministry of Education, and Cabinet Decisions No. 1434/1956 and 882/1957, respectively.

[40] The equivalency of these schools was established in Order No. 1989/1956 published in "Series A" of the Bulletin of the Ministry of Education of Nov. 10, 1956.

[41] See footnote 38.

[42] Details relating to this aspect of gainful employment in production are outlined in Decree No. 180/1950. See *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, II:60:726–27, July 14, 1950.

Competitive examinations for admission to the correspondence courses of the institutions of higher learning are not required of graduates of the technical schools for qualified workers who have been recruited from among high school graduates in accordance with Decision No. 1434/1956 and who have completed at least 2 years of work in production. They may, however, take only those special courses that are related to their field of work. Also exempt from the competitive examinations for admission to these correspondence courses are professional people (doctors, engineers, etc.) intending to take courses related to their specialities.

With minor variations to fit the specific requirements of individual institutions, candidates wishing to attend day schools of higher learning or take correspondence courses must submit a formal application supplemented by the following: (1) a copy of the birth certificate, (2) the maturity diploma (or its equivalent), (3) various medical certificates, (4) proof of assignment to the institution of higher learning and/or completion of the 3-year stage in production, (5) a letter of recommendation from the enterprise (for those wishing to take correspondence courses), (6) a receipt for payment of tuition and registration fees,[43] (7) three photographs.

The length and type of admission examinations and the subjects in which they are to be taken depend on the nature of the institutions and faculties. For example, the faculties of mathematics and physics of the universities and of the Teacher-Training Institute of Timişoara and certain departments[44] within these faculties require written and oral examinations in algebra, trigonometry, plane and solid geometry, and physics. The faculties of chemistry, industrial chemistry, the technology of food products, and the technology and chemistry of oil and gases require written and oral examinations in mathematics, chemistry, and physics.

In the physical, medical, and natural sciences (architecture, agriculture, geology, geography, pharmacology, medicine, etc.) emphasis continues to be on examinations in the sciences (physics, chemistry, zoology, botany, geology, anatomy, physiology, foundations of Darwinism, etc.); but in the social sciences, the arts, and humanities (economics, law, philology, philosophy, psychology, history, theater arts, etc.) the emphasis is on examinations in language and literature, political economy, and other related subjects.

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[43] Beginning with the 1961–62 academic year tuition and registration fees were eliminated. See p. 26ff.

[44] These departments are constructions, railway constructions, roads and bridges, mining electromechanics, electronics and telecommunications, electrotechnics, electrotechnics and power, railway exploitation, exploration of oil and gas deposits, technical geology, hydrotechnology, soil improvement and organization of agricultural territory, construction installations and equipment, light industry, petroleum machinery and equipment, mechanics, mechanization of agriculture, metallurgy and mining.

In some fields, the students are also expected to pass a practical examination. This is especially true of such subjects as anatomy, physical education, and the performing arts. Institutions or faculties having Hungarian sections also require the candidates desiring to enter these sections to pass a written and oral examination in Hungarian and Hungarian literature. Candidates who have graduated from one of the State high schools established for the national minorities (or who are otherwise qualified to enter the institutions of higher learning but are not proficient in Rumanian) are theoretically entitled to take the admission examinations in their native language. An expert knowing the particular language is then included in the examination commission to serve as an interpreter.

The grading system for admission examinations is the same as that for course examinations, namely, grades "1" to "10," "5" being the minimal grade for passing. The oral and practical examinations may be taken only by students receiving at least grade "5" in the written examination. The final grade is the average of the results obtained in all the examinations (written, oral, and practical). Depending upon the number of vacancies available, admission is based on the candidate's social background and his standing in the examinations.

The academic year in the institutions of higher learning begins on October 1 and consists of two semesters.[45]

Programs and Curricula

The Physical and Natural Sciences

Like all other aspects of higher education, its programs and curricula have also undergone a series of changes in the wake of the 1957 Decision. The reorganization has involved among other things placing increased emphasis on subjects related to the "building of socialism" and the development of technology and the economy, and also extending laboratory and shop work. Concurrently, the seminar system has also been extended and the number of examinations and colloquies greatly reduced.

The institutions of higher learning, like the schools of general education and the vocational schools, operate with a centrally approved, single, standard curriculum for each basic field and specialty. Permitting minor variations only in the most advanced courses, the required subjects and the number of hours are identical for all institutions of higher learning in which the same majors are offered. An example of the curriculum offered by the departments of mechanical engineering is the one shown in table 29 for the Polytechnic Institute of Iaşi.

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[45] Article 37 of Decision 1003/1957.

Table 29.—Number of hours per week, per subject, in the Department of Mechanical Engineering, Polytechnical Institute of Iaşi, by semester: 1960–61

Subject	Semester									
	1	*2*	*3*	*4*	*5*	*6*	*7*	*8*	*9*	*10*
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Total	**30**	**32**	**30**	**30**	**30**	**30**	**31**	**30**	**30**	**30**
Scientific socialism	[1]2 +2	2 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Political economy	----	----	2 +2	2 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----
Dialectic materialism	----	----	----	----	2 +2	----	----	----	----	----
Mathematical analysis and algebra	4 +3	2 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Analytical geometry and differential calculus	2 +2	2 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Special mathematics	----	----	2 +2	3 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----
General chemistry	3 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Physics	----	4 +2	3 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Nuclear physics	----	----	----	----	----	2 +1	----	----	----	----
Descriptive geometry	3 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Mechanical drawing	0 +3	0 +3	0 +3	----	----	----	----	----	----	----
Theoretical mechanics	----	3 +2	2 +1	3 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----
Statistics	----	----	3 +2	3 +2	2 +2	----	----	----	----	----
Theory of machines and mechanisms	----	----	----	----	3 +2	3 +1	----	----	----	----
Machine elements	----	----	----	----	4 +2	4 +4	----	----	----	----
Hoisting and transporting machines	----	----	----	----	----	----	2 +0	2 +2	----	----
Mechanical technology	----	3 +1	2 +1	4 +2	----	----	----	----	----	----
Physics of metals and heat treatment	----	----	2 +1	2 +1	----	----	----	----	----	----
Tolerances and technical measurement	----	----	----	----	2 +0	2 +1	----	----	----	----
Electrical engineering and electric machines	----	----	----	2 +0	3 +1	3 +2	----	----	----	----
Thermodynamics and thermodynamic measurements	----	----	----	----	3 +2	3 +2	----	----	----	----
Fluid mechanics	----	----	----	----	----	2 +0	2 +2	----	----	----
Planning and organization of concerns	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	2 +0	2 +2	----
Engineering shop	0 +2	0 +2	----	----	----	----	0 +2	----	----	----
Technical economy	----	----	----	----	----	----	2 +0	----	----	----
Bookkeeping	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	3 +0	----	----
Theory of cutting and cutting instruments	----	----	----	----	----	----	4 +2	----	----	----
Tool machinery and automation	----	----	----	----	----	----	5 +1	2 +2	----	----
Technology of machine manufacture	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	4 +1	6 +5	----
Apparatus planning	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	3 +1	3 +2	----
Processes without cutting	----	----	----	----	----	----	3 +2	2 +0	0 +2	----
Technology of heat treatment and its equipments	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	2 +1	3 +1	----
Technology of welding	----	----	----	----	----	----	2 +1	2 +1	----	----
Planning of engineering works	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	----	2 +2	----
Examinations	*3*	*6*	*2*	*6*	*3*	*6*	*4*	*5*	*6*	----
Rigorosa (examination)	*2*	*1*	*1*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	[2] *30*
Practical assignments (current plans)	*0*	*0*	*0*	*0*	*1*	*1*	*2*	*2*	*4*	----

SOURCE OF DATA: Article by Károly Héberger on "Rumanian Technical Higher Education," in *Felsöoktatási Szemle*, Budapest, X:1–2:91–96, January-February, 1961.

[1] Throughout the table the number of hours at the left of the plus sign (+) denotes time spent on theoretical aspects of the course and the number of hours at the right, time spent on practical aspects.

[2] For thesis preparation.

The Social Sciences

Great as the changes in the physical and natural sciences have been, however, perhaps no other reform was as sweeping as the one in the social sciences. Although the primary task of the institutions of higher learning continued to be thought of as that of preparing the highly skilled specialists needed by the expanding "socialist economy," the educational directives left no doubt that these institutions were also responsible for educating students in the spirit of "socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism." The social science program in higher education had been subjected to severe criticism, particularly in regard to its system of teaching, the poor preparation of its instructors, and its handling of subject matter. The lectures, it was pointed out, failed to correlate Marxist-Leninist propaganda with the economic tasks confronting the State and the Party. The teachers were further accused of suffering from "dogmatism, historicism, citation-mania," and insufficient combativeness towards "bourgeois ideology."[46]

In expectation of better results, the social sciences have been taught since 1957 within the framework of three separate courses, namely scientific socialism, political economy, and dialectical and historical materialism. The former, replacing the course on "the history of the workers' movement," deals with the fundamental theses of historical materialism and the history of the Communist and "workers' parties" of the world, giving special emphasis to Rumania and the Soviet Union.

The sequence in which the social science subjects are given and the extent to which they are taught differ according to the nature of the particular institution of higher learning. In the polytechnical, technical, and agronomic institutes, as well as in the universities (excepting the schools of biology, mathematics, physics, and chemistry) and the teacher-training institutes, the course on scientific socialism is given first, followed by courses on political economy and dialectical and historical materialism. In the institutes of art, architecture, and medicine and pharmacy, as well as in the schools of veterinary medicine, biology, mathematics, physics, and chemistry, only the courses on scientific socialism and dialectical and historical materialism are taught, the former incorporating the basic elements of economics.

With the exception of the schools of social science proper, the number of hours required in these subjects varies according to the student's specialty. The requirements at the institutes of medicine and pharmacy, art, and architecture are four semesters, with two class hours weekly and two seminar hours bimonthly. At the polytechnical, technical, and agronomic institutes and the schools of veterinary medicine, biology, mathematics, physics, and chemistry, the requirements are five semesters; and at the universities (with the exception of the schools of philosophy, history, and law) and teacher-training institutes, six semesters. All these institutions also require two class hours weekly and two seminar hours bimonthly. The schools of law and history require seven semesters in addition to the other requirements. The school of philosophy also requires a course on the history of economic thought and one on the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party.

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[46] *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, VI:4:3–18, April 1957; and VI:10:58–70, October 1957.

Results of Political Education

Aside from having to take formal courses in Marxism-Leninism, students are also expected to attend political indoctrination lectures offered under the auspices of the various Party and youth organizations. It seems, however, that many students attend these lectures mainly to avoid trouble or to maintain their academic standing.

An article in the daily organ of the Union of Working Youth[47] evaluating the results of examinations given in a course on the basic tenets of Marxism-Leninism to fourth-year journalism students of the Schools of Law and Philosophy and stating that over 20 percent failed the examinations seems to attest to a haphazard way of studying this course. The article asserted that these students had acquired only parrot-like knowledge of Marxist-Leninist concepts, that their grasp of dialectical materialism was superficial, and that their philosophical thinking was confused. This fact, the article said, was illustrated by the students' inability to identify some of the leading philosophers of the past. They confused the "Utopian Socialists" with the "Encyclopaedists" or failed to identify a single "contemporary bourgeois philosophical movement."

This picture is one of students whose social science program (scientific socialism, political economy, and dialectical and historical materialism)[48] is much more extensive than that of students attending other faculties.

The students must attend a large number of meetings organized by the various UTM, UASR, and other Party mass organizations, often at the expense of their studies. The relatively large number of students who were failing their courses and the ever recurring tendency on the part of many to postpone their examinations[49] due to unpreparedness caused by excessive "communal work" requirements, forced the Party to reevaluate the students' political activities, and early in the 1950's, it "reduced" the students' "communal work" load to 5 hours per week.[50] At the same time, however, it also took a series of measures calculated to "improve" the indoctrination program by reorganizing the curriculum of the social science departments of the institutions of higher learning.[51]

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[47] *Scinteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, June 6, 1957. Article by Ludwig Grunberg.

[48] See p. 131ff.

In spite of all the measures taken, however, it appears that the ideological indoctrination program has not been particularly successful. Its ineffectiveness was openly revealed during the Hungarian uprising of 1956. When the news first broke about the revolt of the Hungarians against the Communist system and the Red Army, students at the Bolyai University in Cluj staged sympathy demonstrations which were swiftly quelled. Lajos (Ludovic) Takács, then the rector, tried to explain the situation by stating that this was a student "generation raised in an atmosphere that did not know the intensity of the suppression by the past regime."[52] To prevent similar outbursts of nationalism he called for an intensification of the political and ideological activity of the schools and for "an unceasing struggle against dogmatism and Talmudism."[53]

The intensity of the Party's dissatisfaction with the political-ideological education of students reached a high point in the summer of 1956, when it embarked on a radical new program aimed at eliminating the existing shortcomings.[54]

Reviewing the general difficulties encountered by the State as to the Communist education of both students and teachers, as well as the ineffective work of the Party and Communist Youth organizations, the Political Bureau of the Central Committee decided to do the following:

★establish student associations functioning under the control and guidance of the UTM

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[49] It was shown that students taking their examinations in September fare less well than those taking them in January or June. At the Medical-Pharmaceutical Institute of Cluj, for example, only ⅛ of those taking their examinations in January or June received grades of "5" or "6" (passing or sufficient), while 40 percent fell into this group during the September sessions. (Report by Cornel Burtică. *Viaţa Studenţească*, Bucharest, Feb. 10, 1961, p. 2)

[50] "Cu privire la reglementarea activităţii obşteşti a studenţilor în universităţi şi institute de învăţămînt superior" (On the Regulation of the Communal Activities of Students in Universities and Institutions of Higher Learning). *Rezoluţii şi hotărîri ale Comitetului Central al Partidului Muncitoresc Romîn, 1951–1953* (Resolutions and Decisions of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party, 1951–1953). Bucharest: Editura de stat pentru literatura politică, 1954, p. 297–99.

[51] "Pentru îmbunătăţirea activităţii catedrelor de ştiinţe sociale din învăţămîntul superior" (For the Improving of the Social Science Departments in Higher Education). *Ibid.*, p. 516–25.

[52] *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Jan. 4, 1957.

[53] *Ibid.*

[54] *Hotărîrea Biroului Politic al C.C. al P.M.R. cu privire la unele măsuri de îmbunătăţire a muncii politice-educative în rîndul studenţilor, 22 Iunie 1956* (Decision of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party Concerning Certain Measures for Improving the Political-Educational Work Among the Students, June 22, 1956). Bucharest: Editura de stat pentru literatura politică, 1956. 29 p.

- ★entrust the UTM with the communist indoctrination of students
- ★transfer the activities performed under the auspices of the Voluntary Association to Support the Defense of the Fatherland (*Asociaţia voluntară pentru sprijinirea apărării patriei*, popularly known as AVSAP) and of the Rumanian Association for Strengthening Relations With the Soviet Union (*Asociaţia romînă pentru strîngerea legăturilor cu Uniunea Sovietică*, popularly known as ARLUS) to the newly established student associations
- ★transfer the membership of students from the trade-union organizations to the student associations
- ★organize periodic meetings between the representatives of the urban and regional Party committees and those of higher learning
- ★improve the system of scholarships and assistance for students.

Despite the measures enacted since 1957 to improve Marxist-Leninist education, it appears that the same shortcomings that brought about revisions in the institutions of higher learning[55] continue to plague them.

The Polytechnization Program

Viewing higher education as an agency responsible primarily for the preparation of the highly qualified people required by the national economy and the "new socialist culture," the State called for the adaptation of its organization and program to the concrete problems posed by "socialist construction." This involved the gradual transformation of higher education along polytechnical lines and the concomitant abandonment of the stress on narrow specialization, as well as the amalgamation of a number of fragmentized institutions. It also called for an intensification of the program leading to the establishing and strengthening of collaboration between the institutions of higher learning and the various industrial and agricultural enterprises. The system of practical work in production was first introduced on a formal basis during the 1954–55 academic year by virtue of Decision No. 1283 of the Council of Ministers of July 31, 1954.[56] The first years of experimentation failed to yield the results expected by the State. Although the requirements of the laws in force were formally observed, the ultimate aim of tying education to life and to the various processes of agricultural and industrial production failed to materialize.

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[55] Aurel Pop. "Probleme actuale ale predării ştiinţei marxist–leniniste în învăţămîntul superior" (Current Problems in the Teaching of Marxist–Leninist Science in Higher Education). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXVIII:10:59-71, October 1958. N. Petrovici, G. Halasan, *and* I. Iuga. "Despre predarea socialismului ştiinţific în instituţiile de învăţămînt superior" (On the Teaching of Scientific Socialism in the Institutions of Higher Learning). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXIX:3:62–71, March 1959.

[56] Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1954 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1954, p. 102–08.

Some of the difficulties encountered during the first phase of the program's implementation and some of the reasons for the reorganization of the higher education system foreshadowing the adoption of a new polytechnization program may be gauged from articles written by C. Ionescu-Bujor, General Director of the General Directorate of Higher Education in the Ministry of Education and Mircea Munteanu.[57] According to them, the contracts signed by the enterprises and the institutions of higher learning were not usually adhered to. They illustrated this point by referring to the situation that prevailed in the Braşov (Stalin), Cluj, and Hunedoara regions. Thus, for example, the Polytechnic Institute of Braşov (Oraşul Stalin) sent 820 students to do practical work at the "Steagul Roşu" Works of the same city instead of the 280 contracted for, "interfering thereby with the smooth functioning of production." In other university centers, students managed to find a way to do practical work in the city where their school was located, rather than go to the more distant locations to which they were assigned. A few industrial enterprises in the Cluj and Hunedoara regions were singled out for special criticism because of the inadequate preparations taken to assure the smooth functioning of practical work. The students in their turn were accused of using the time allotted for practical work "for playing cards or promenading."

To correct this situation the Ministry of Education took a number of measures providing for:

1. Enlargement of the scientific councils of the institutions of higher learning through including the directors, chief engineers, and highly skilled technicians of large enterprises.
2. Contracts between various enterprises and institutions, stipulating that the income received by the institutions to contribute to improved production should be so divided that the individual faculty members responsible for the innovation would receive 40 percent of this income as a bonus, and that the remainder would be applied to further enhance the educational facilities of the particular school unit.
3. Improvement of the instructors specializing in agricultural or technical education by calling for their periodic engagement in practical work in production that would be organized and supervised by the Ministry in cooperation with the respective industrial or agricultural ministries and the Scientific Association of Engineers and Technicians (*Asociaţia ştiinţifică a inginerilor şi tehnicienilor*).
4. Organization of informative meetings, lectures, and conferences through the cooperation of the students and faculty and the various experts employed by the industrial and agricultural enterprises and by the governmental institutions.[58]

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[57] *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXVII:9:37–47, September 1957; *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Sept. 5, 1957.

[58] See article 4 of Decision No. 1003/1957 cited above.

The reorganized system of polytechnical education was introduced beginning with the 1958–59 academic year.[59] Considered as a long-range program in higher education, practical work in production is expected to enable the students to acquire the technical know-how required for industrial and agricultural production, to familiarize themselves with the equipment and tools, to understand the organization and processes of production, and to facilitate the application of their theoretical knowledge to productive endeavors. It is further expected to enable the students to understand the "social character of production" and the efforts exerted by the workers and technicians in the manufacturing of material goods, thereby developing their "feeling of love towards labor and the working people and towards their chosen field of specialty as well as their spirit of devotion towards the construction of socialism in the country."

Forming an integral part of the learning process, practical work in production can be differentiated in terms of its type and scope as follows: (1) practical work preceding the academic studies, (2) annual practical work, (3) practical work in fulfillment of degree requirements.

The first type is applied primarily in the technical and polytechnical institutes and is carried out during the student's first year in the institution of higher learning. It lasts for 10 months and its details are established periodically by the Ministry of Education. It aims to give the student an overall view of his future profession and acquaint him with the various processes of production, thereby facilitating his understanding of the technical-theoretical courses, and enabling him to acquire the know-how in a basic trade relating to his specialty.

The annual practical work in production is effectuated during a 4- to 7-week period each year of the student's stay at the institution. It is envisioned as training the student in the practical application of his theoretical knowledge acquired in various courses, seminars, and research projects; as completing his knowledge and understanding of the function and operation of the various machines and tools; as equipping him with the practical background required for the continuation of his studies in the next academic year; as including him in the process of production; and as familiarizing him with the most advanced techniques used by the enterprises.

Practical work in fulfillment of degree requirements is carried out after the student has successfully completed all the courses prescribed in his study program. It consists primarily of the collection and processing of the data required to prepare the research project agreed upon for getting a degree. The length of this type of practical work is determined by the type of the project and is established by the particular department at the time when the research topic is selected. All three types of practical work in production are carried out as far as possible in the shops and industrial and agricultural productive units of the locality where the institution of higher learning is situated.

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[59] This was regulated by Decision No. 905 of the Council of Ministers issued on July 9, 1958. For text see *Ministerul Justiției. Colecție de legi, decrete, hotărîri și dispoziții 1958 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura științifică, 1958, p. 118–31. This Decree was partically amended by Decree No. 167, Feb. 26, 1960. *Ibid., 1960 1 Ianuarie–29 Februarie*, p. 88–90.

Students attending the universities or taking correspondence courses may fulfill their practical work requirement by participating in research and archeological expeditions or by working at various research stations. Those specializing in law, history, philology, economics or the arts are expected to fulfill this requirement in the governmental institutions or offices corresponding with their specialty, namely, the courts, the general prosecutor's office, the libraries or archives, or the cultural and artistic establishments. The selection of the enterprises and institutions and the assignment of the number of students are regulated by agreements signed by the Ministry of Education and the various sponsoring ministries having jurisdiction over these enterprises.

The institutions of higher learning collaborate with selected enterprises in organizing, guiding, and supervising the practical work requirement of the students. The details of the collaboration are specified in special agreements covering, among others, the following items: the number of students performing practical work and their years of study; the length of the practical work period for each scholastic year; the official entrusted by the institutions of higher learning with the guidance of practical work; the official appointed by the enterprise or governmental institution; and student lodging, boarding, and transportation. The agreements usually include a list of the students assigned to perform practical work, the practical work programs jointly agreed to by the educational institution and the enterprise, and the work program of the students for their entire period of practical work. Such agreements are signed by the president of the institution of higher learning and the director of the enterprise not later than one month before the beginning of the practical work program.

The programs relating to the practical work requirements of students entering the institutions of higher learning are prepared by a "department of practical work" (*catedră de practică*) and those relating to the annual practical work by the departments of each faculty. These programs are then discussed in a scientific council of the faculty, and approved by both the dean of the particular faculty and the director of the enterprise in which the practical work is to be performed.

The "department of practical work" is composed of a lecturer; a chief of projects, if necessary; and a few assistants, depending upon the number of students. In institutions having no such departments, the practical work program is organized by a "commission on practical work in production" (*comisie pentru practica în producție*) composed of three to seven instructors, depending upon the type of school and the number of students involved. Although both the department and the commission are responsible for the implementation of the program to the president of the institution of higher learning, the president, in turn, is responsible to the Minister of Education. In case the school is sponsored by another ministry, the president is also responsible to the head of that ministry.

The supervision of the practical work program in enterprises having more than 15 students in entrusted to an official assigned by the enterprise, as well as to an instructor appointed by the department or commission on practical work. In enterprises having only a small number of students, the educational institution's supervision is carried out through occasional visits of instructors appointed for this purpose by the president of the institution. These and the permanent practical work instructors have a number of clearly defined responsibilities. They verify the fulfillment of the collaboration agreements entered into by the institution and the enterprise; guide the students in their practical work assignments, emphasizing the theoretical foundation of the technological processes; check the students' attendance, punctuality, diligence, and behavior; investigate living conditions; guide the cultural activities organized by the students in the enterprises or in the community, especially from the political point of view; and sign the students' "practical work notebook" (*carnetul de practică*).

The obligations of the students while performing their practical work requirement are considerable. They must above all abide by the internal rules of the enterprise and fulfill the work plan allotted to them under the agreement signed by the enterprise and the institution. Depending upon the gravity of the case, noncompliance is punishable by a reprimand, a written warning, or exclusion from practical work, which is tantamount to failure or exmatriculation. Although the first two types of punishment can be applied either by the leader of the enterprise or by the president of the school, the third is the sole prerogative of the president.

First-year students performing the practical work preceding their academic studies must learn one of the trades specified by the faculty in which they are registered. At the end of the 10-month work period, they must pass a practical and an oral "qualifying examination" (*examen de calificare*) before a commission composed of the official entrusted by the enterprise with the implementation of the program, the instructor assigned by the institution, the worker under whose immediate jurisdiction and supervision the student performed his work, and a delegate of the wage-establishing governmental commission. Students receiving a grade of at least "6" in both examinations get a certificate denoting the level of their qualification in the particular trade. This level is determined jointly by the Ministry of Education and the State Committee on Problems of Labor and Wages (*Comitetul de stat pentru problemele de muncă şi salarii*).

Before the first-year students can actually begin their academic studies and the others can be promoted to higher grades, they must pass a *colloquium* in verification of their achievements in the preschool and annual practical work, respectively. Students excluded from practical work or those failing to comply with the annual practical work requirement are declared either as having failed the entire year or as being exmatriculated. Exception is made for students failing to comply because of sickness: these may continue their schooling in the next grade, provided that their illness is corroborated by an authoritative physician and that they complete the practical work requirement during the summer vacation.

In addition to the responsibilities outlined above, students are required "to integrate in the course of the practical work period in the communal and cultural life of the respective enterprise or institution."

Scholarship holders receive their installment payments throughout the practical work period. Those having no scholarships are reimbursed for most of the expenses incurred during the implementation of the practical work program if the enterprise or institution to which they were assigned is in a locality other than that where they reside. The educational authorities also meet within limits expenses involved in the transportation of students and expenses incurred during "scientific and educational excursions." While in the enterprises, students enjoy the same protective rights as workers and receive the equipment required in their work from the institutions of higher learning.

The overall organization and implementation of the practical work program is entrusted to a "Central Coordinating Commission on the Students' Practical Work in Production" (*Comisie centrală de coordonare a practicii în producţie a studenţilor*) operating within the framework of the Ministry of Education. It is composed of representatives from the Ministry of Education, the sponsoring ministries or governmental institution, the Central Committee of the Union of Working Youth, and the Executive Committee of the Union of Students' Associations.

Job Assignment of Graduates

Upon completing their studies, students are assigned to various jobs in terms of their respective (or related) fields of specialization.[60] Since 1960, graduates of advanced technical, agricultural, and economic institutions have been assigned to production units, where they are expected to perfect their practical and organizational skills. Graduates of advanced medical-pharmaceutical institutes are normally assigned to medical and pharmaceutical units. With certain exceptions,[61] graduates of the various technical and medical-pharmaceutical institutes cannot be assigned to administrative positions, either in the central or the local governmental organs. Nor can they be assigned to scientific research or planning organizations.

The job-assignment program is coordinated by the rectors of the affected institutions of higher learning. The assignment proper is administered by the deans' offices of the schools (faculties), with obligatory participation by the delegates of the central and local governmental organs receiving the graduates. In preparation for joint meetings, these delegates submit reports indicating the enterprises and institutions to which the graduates are to be allocated, as well as the position available and the remuneration offered. When the assignments have been made, contracts are signed stipulating the mutual obligations of the graduates and the economic, administrative, health, educational, and cultural units. The terms of the contracts are set by the central governmental units and reviewed by the Ministry of Education and the Central Council of Labor Unions. Students who have entered an institution of higher learning on the basis of a contract signed with an enterprise or a central or local governmental unit are normally assigned to the positions provided for in those contracts. In well-justified cases (such as those involving proximity of spouses, aged or infirm parents, or reasons of health) the personal interests of the graduates are also taken into consideration in the assignment. The production assignment normally lasts for 3 years of which 1 year is spent in apprenticeship.

The annual plan for the assignment of graduates to production is drawn up by March 31 of each year by the State Planning Committee (*Comitetul de stat al planificării*) as based on the proposals of the central and local governmental organs. Within one month after the plan's ratification by the Council of Ministers, the Ministry of Education informs the interested governmental units about the schools (faculties) from which the recruitment of the required personnel is to be made.

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[60] The job assignment requirements and procedures were outlined by Decision No. 918/1960 of the Council of Ministers. For text see *Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne*, Bucharest, IX:28:668–76, July 27, 1960.

[61] Graduates of the Institute of Architecture may temporarily be assigned to work with the regional planning institutions; graduates of the technical institutes, on the other hand, may be assigned—also temporarily—either to the waters sections of the executive committees of the regional people's councils or to the roads sections of the executive committees of the raional people's councils. In all of these exceptional cases, however, measures must be taken for the graduates' subsequent transfer to production units.

Enrollment

In terms of the number of students and faculties, higher education experienced a considerable development after World War II. The number of students increased steadily, especially after the reorganization of the educational system in 1948.

Compared with 1938–39, when only 26,489 students attended the institutions of higher learning, in 1948–49 there were 48,676 and in 1956–57 a peak of 81,206.[62] Following the 1957 reorganization of the system of higher education, enrollment dropped to 61,980 in 1959–60. Of these, 44,775 attended the regular day sessions and 611 the evening sessions, and 16,594 took correspondence courses. The bulk of the students attended the institutions located in Bucharest, Cluj, and Iaşi. Of the total number of students in 1959-60, 32,488 (more than half) were in Bucharest, 11,220 in Cluj, and 8,464 in Iaşi.

Percentage of University-Age Population

The number of students attending the various university years during 1956–57 and 1959–60 and the ratio of total enrollments to the university-age population (age 18–23) are shown in table 31.

In 1956–57, of a total university-age population numbering 1,914,258 in the 18–23 age group, 81,206, or 4.24 percent,[63] attended the institutions of higher learning. Of these, 56,170 attended the day session. This figure was 69.2 percent of the total number of enrolled students and 2.93 percent of the university-age population. By 1959–60 the ratio had declined, due to both an increase in total population and a decline in enrollments. The 61,980 students enrolled in 1959–60 represented 3.24[64] percent of the total 1956 university-age population. The 44,775 students enrolled in the day sessions were 72.2 percent of the total enrollment and 2.34 percent of the university-age population.

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[62] See footnote 44 of chapter II. For changes in the number of faculties and students between 1959–60 and 1961–62 see table IV.

[63] Actually the percentage is smaller because many of the students (especially those among the 24,515 and the 16,594 taking correspondence courses in 1956–57 and 1959–60, respectively) were over 23 years of age.

[64] *Ibid.*

Table 30.—Number of faculties, students, and graduates in higher education, by field: 1948–49 through 1959–60

[0 indicates that institution did not exist — indicates that source did not show any figures]

Item	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Faculties												
Total	129	135	136	142	150	155	144	127	112	98	95	88
Mines [1]	3	3	3	3	5	5	5	5	5	2	2	2
Petroleum	2	2	3	5	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	4
Electric power and electrotechniques [2]	3	3	3	5	5	6	6	6	5	5	4	4
Metallurgy and machine constructions	7	9	9	12	11	13	12	11	9	8	8	8
Industrial chemistry	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Lumber industry [3]	2	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
Light industry	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Food industry	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	1	1	1	1	1
Transport and telecommunications [4]	1	5	5	5	5	7	5	4	3	3	3	1
Architecture and constructions	5	6	6	7	7	10	9	9	9	8	8	8
Agriculture	12	13	13	16	17	16	16	15	14	9	9	8
Silviculture	2	2	2	2	2	3	2	2	1	1	1	1
Veterinary medicine	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	1	1	1
Medicine (human)	20	20	20	15	15	15	15	12	7	7	7	7
Pharmacy	3	4	4	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Philology [5]	4	4	4	4	4	4	5	5	5	5	5	5
Philosophy	4	4	4	2	3	2	2	2	1	1	1	1
History, geology, geography [6]	4	4	8	7	7	8	4	4	—	1	1	1
Natural sciences, biology	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	[7] 4	[8] 4	4	4	3
Chemistry	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	3
Mathematics-physics	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
Education (pedagogy)	6	7	9	8	9	10	8	4	5	5	3	3
Juridical sciences	4	4	4	3	4	4	4	4	4	4	4	3
Economic sciences	5	6	5	6	8	8	7	6	6	4	4	3
Physical culture and sport	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
Plastic and decorative art	3	3	2	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
Theater and cinematographic art	5	5	5	4	4	4	4	3	3	2	2	2
Music	5	5	4	4	5	5	4	4	4	4	4	4
Other [9]	8	4	1	5	5	1	3	1	1	0	0	0
Students												
Total	48,676	48,615	53,007	61,123	71,513	80,593	78,860	77,633	81,206	80,919	67,849	61,980
Day sessions	48,676	45,816	46,195	49,010	52,434	59,935	61,948	60,347	56,170	51,094	45,501	44,775
Evening sessions	—	224	649	765	1,421	2,263	1,498	886	521	350	167	611
Correspondence courses	—	1,614	3,647	7,942	14,373	15,774	15,414	16,400	24,515	29,475	22,181	16,594

Mining, total	380	557	889	1,181	2,367	2,853	2,135	1,885	[10] 1,904	1,126	854	707
Day sessions	*380*	*557*	*889*	*1,094*	*1,760*	*2,095*	*1,916*	*1,690*	*1,602*	*779*	*620*	*488*
Petroleum, total	274	441	769	1,096	1,463	1,948	1,513	1,411	1,383	1,709	1,453	1,218
Day sessions	*274*	*441*	*769*	*977*	*1,157*	*1,403*	*1,289*	*1,272*	*1,078*	*1,320*	*1,104*	*956*
Electric power and electrotechniques, total [11]	1,250	1,823	1,757	2,684	3,791	4,364	3,900	4,737	4,061	3,946	2,749	2,027
Day sessions	*1,250*	*1,177*	*1,387*	*1,782*	*2,068*	*2,618*	*2,802*	*3,324*	*2,738*	*2,413*	*1,927*	*1,394*
Metallurgy and machine constructions, total	1,667	2,750	3,576	6,464	7,666	8,776	8,210	8,112	7,319	6,750	5,141	3,971
Day sessions	*1,667*	*2,317*	*2,328*	*3,401*	*3,943*	*5,196*	*6,215*	*6,178*	*5,239*	*4,319*	*3,705*	*2,812*
Industrial chemistry, total	1,009	1,119	1,249	1,886	2,581	2,726	2,626	2,952	2,836	2,716	1,913	1,653
Day sessions	*1,009*	*1,041*	*1,111*	*1,375*	*1,644*	*1,798*	*1,897*	*2,150*	*1,953*	*1,668*	*1,439*	*1,307*
Lumber industry, total	334	442	501	552	807	878	856	881	356	264	318	331
Day sessions	*334*	*376*	*362*	*389*	*564*	*612*	*715*	*730*	*308*	*264*	*225*	*221*
Light industry, total	824	590	582	791	996	941	943	811	746	739	568	437
Day sessions	*824*	*501*	*380*	*412*	*441*	*567*	*734*	*568*	*543*	*477*	*410*	*311*
Food industry, total	393	638	901	885	1,303	1,470	1,225	867	824	786	692	666
Day sessions	*393*	*638*	*818*	*738*	*888*	*1,202*	*874*	*653*	*633*	*534*	*488*	*500*
Transport and telecommunications, total [12]	816	615	965	2,404	2,966	3,084	2,442	2,267	2,194	2,095	1,374	1,395
Day sessions	*316*	*466*	*629*	*1,001*	*1,172*	*1,949*	*1,715*	*1,621*	*1,368*	*1,217*	*956*	*911*
Architecture and constructions, total	2,430	2,391	2,055	2,791	3,285	5,491	5,510	5,318	5,458	5,871	5,001	4,394
Day sessions	*2,430*	*2,391*	*2,055*	*2,315*	*2,617*	*4,000*	*4,335*	*4,627*	*4,210*	*3,779*	*3,231*	*3,015*
Agriculture, total	2,813	4,122	5,947	6,168	7,126	7,371	7,210	6,695	7,045	6,416	5,716	6,698
Day sessions	*2,813*	*4,122*	*5,947*	*6,168*	*6,380*	*6,499*	*6,315*	*5,844*	*5,776*	*5,145*	*4,585*	*5,628*
Silviculture, total	253	473	664	750	1,020	1,389	1,419	1,231	1,176	1,278	650	685
Day sessions	*253*	*473*	*664*	*750*	*929*	*1,215*	*1,268*	*1,057*	*895*	*936*	*376*	*452*
Veterinary medicine												
Day sessions	*769*	*860*	*966*	*974*	*1,049*	*1,096*	*1,020*	*873*	*776*	*729*	*644*	*713*
Medicine (human)												
Day sessions	*8,815*	*7,847*	*6,763*	*6,444*	*6,601*	*7,151*	*8,279*	*8,950*	*9,284*	*8,828*	*7,914*	*7,070*
Pharmacy												
Day sessions	*1,205*	*1,222*	*855*	*673*	*713*	*677*	*913*	*846*	*865*	*808*	*712*	*715*
Philology, total [13]	2,713	2,154	1,887	1,655	1,635	2,278	4,368	5,411	6,587	6,344	6,718	7,066
Day sessions	*2,713*	*2,154*	*1,887*	*1,655*	*1,635*	*1,929*	*3,514*	*3,969*	*4,199*	*4,178*	*4,344*	*4,938*
Philosophy, total	530	587	547	696	629	652	976	696	710	653	652	422
Day sessions	*530*	*587*	*547*	*696*	*629*	*652*	*900*	*663*	*687*	*587*	*576*	*368*
History, geology, geography, total [14]	1,667	1,619	2,065	1,810	1,796	2,418	1,153	1,053	0	545	507	510
Day sessions	*1,667*	*1,619*	*2,065*	*1,810*	*1,796*	*2,418*	*1,153*	*1,053*	*0*	*444*	*405*	*419*
Natural sciences, biology, total	792	927	939	1,137	1,352	2,586	2,459	[15] 2,162	[16] 3,582	3,918	2,957	2,558
Day sessions	*792*	*927*	*939*	*1,137*	*1,352*	*1,542*	*1,661*	*1,785*	*2,746*	*1,935*	*1,678*	*1,778*
Chemistry, total	1,286	1,251	1,587	1,617	1,405	1,499	1,241	949	1,217	1,241	1,143	1,038
Day sessions	*1,286*	*1,251*	*1,445*	*1,513*	*1,323*	*1,412*	*1,241*	*949*	*1,217*	*1,241*	*1,143*	*1,038*
Mathematics-physics, total	762	808	3,192	4,356	4,272	4,802	3,982	3,745	3,880	3,974	4,135	4,225
Day sessions	*762*	*808*	*1,070*	*1,185*	*1,398*	*1,660*	*1,646*	*1,788*	*2,007*	*2,259*	*2,759*	*3,374*
Education, total	1,321	3,529	4,474	4,287	5,164	5,367	4,813	4,134	3,684	2,370	1,967	1,717
Day sessions	*1,321*	*1,691*	*2,442*	*3,269*	*3,275*	*3,804*	*3,030*	*2,243*	*1,756*	*1,610*	*1,308*	*1,419*
Juridical sciences, total	5,534	3,535	2,464	2,043	1,672	1,865	2,320	3,327	5,924	8,032	6,438	4,693
Day sessions	*5,534*	*3,535*	*2,464*	*2,043*	*1,432*	*1,224*	*1,229*	*1,532*	*1,618*	*1,518*	*1,283*	*1,006*
Economic sciences, total	8,294	5,495	4,650	4,864	6,311	5,815	6,395	5,921	7,173	7,776	5,718	5,078
Day sessions	*8,294*	*5,495*	*4,650*	*4,244*	*4,649*	*4,490*	*4,655*	*4,146*	*3,088*	*2,556*	*2,132*	*2,301*
Physical culture and sport, total	218	339	465	587	903	1,028	947	888	764	636	514	564
Day sessions	*218*	*339*	*465*	*587*	*664*	*716*	*660*	*573*	*459*	*377*	*335*	*366*
Plastic and decorative art, total	814	772	635	653	503	492	458	377	437	430	424	409
Day sessions	*814*	*772*	*635*	*653*	*503*	*492*	*458*	*365*	*361*	*394*	*393*	*380*

See footnotes at end of table.

Table 30.—Number of faculties, students, and graduates in higher education, by field: 1948–49 through 1959–60—Continued

Item	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Theater and cinematographic art, total	581	621	619	583	570	586	450	321	287	308	292	295
Day sessions	*581*	*621*	*619*	*583*	*570*	*586*	*450*	*275*	*210*	*238*	*204*	*230*
Music, total	907	1,219	875	831	667	648	520	462	530	631	685	725
Day sessions	*907*	*1,219*	*875*	*831*	*667*	*643*	*520*	*447*	*456*	*541*	*605*	*665*
Other, total	525	369	169	311	900	347	582	351	204	0	0	0
Day sessions	*525*	*369*	*169*	*311*	*615*	*289*	*544*	*176*	*98*	*0*	*0*	*0*
Graduates												
Total	7,814	8,374	9,510	7,555	10,984	12,379	8,163	11,274	11,829	12,047	10,948	—
Mining [17]	25	66	64	158	286	543	393	34	396	207	216	—
Petroleum	0	0	80	88	167	276	0	356	247	311	256	—
Electric power and electrotechniques [18]	146	165	320	245	584	747	69	720	643	660	593	—
Metallurgy and machine constructions	148	389	958	376	613	1,259	74	1,380	1,234	1,221	1,071	—
Industrial chemistry	250	132	220	211	341	485	34	382	413	435	327	—
Lumber industry	0	86	126	70	61	24	57	113	—	60	67	—
Light industry	46	193	167	81	74	180	123	0	97	127	121	—
Food industry	0	0	200	0	208	207	176	0	161	124	115	—
Transport and telecommunications [19]	0	0	136	185	440	308	96	274	298	358	261	—
Architecture and constructions	479	484	421	284	430	485	151	747	735	873	793	—
Agriculture	280	322	779	846	1,436	1,709	727	669	1,186	1,222	186	—
Silviculture	0	0	98	0	190	189	277	197	328	303	146	—
Veterinary medicine	98	123	104	112	168	204	214	149	139	173	0	—
Medicine (human)	1,343	1,725	1,374	1,124	1,431	935	785	825	976	1,343	1,527	—
Pharmacy	199	226	291	104	182	0	164	130	143	155	196	—
Philology [20]	545	497	620	318	271	416	441	845	828	976	960	—
Philosophy	106	96	47	90	127	88	286	0	173	190	240	—
History, geology, geography [21]	291	307	469	325	331	489	209	63	98	109	255	—
Natural sciences, biology	126	107	117	139	262	564	435	[22] 388	[22] 840	635	804	—
Chemistry	267	228	204	244	263	365	315	0	166	264	238	—
Mathematics-physics	48	60	151	208	238	989	745	686	380	480	589	—
Education	133	129	335	686	985	853	909	933	351	341	231	—
Juridical sciences	1,046	984	567	424	377	385	134	388	425	338	590	—
Economic sciences	1,895	1,802	1,411	834	1,109	201	830	1,585	1,168	836	848	—
Physical culture and sport	26	28	45	84	116	140	129	164	181	95	124	—
Plastic and decorative art	51	67	13	77	75	93	112	59	55	57	67	—
Theater and cinematographic art	56	86	71	131	118	106	136	86	51	68	40	—
Music	118	31	44	111	101	139	142	82	86	86	87	—
Other	92	41	78	0	0	0	0	19	—	0	0	0

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 380–85.

[1] Geology included beginning with 1956–57.

[2] Telecommunications included beginning with 1956–57.

[3] Included in Silviculture beginning with 1956–57.

[4] Telecommunications given under auspices of the Faculty of Electrotechniques beginning with 1956–57.

[5] Philology-History beginning with 1954–55.

[6] Geology-Geography beginning with 1954–55.

[7] Natural Sciences-Chemistry beginning with 1955–56.

[8] Natural Sciences-Geography during 1956–57.

[9] Includes Faculty of Archivistics, Social Assistance, Communal Farming and International Relations.

[10] Geology included beginning with 1956–57.

[11] Telecommunications included beginning with 1955–56.

[12] Telecommunications taught under the Faculty of Electrotechniques beginning with 1955–56.

[13] Philology-History beginning with 1954–55.

[14] Geology-Geography beginning with 1954–55.

[15] Natural Sciences-Chemistry during 1955–56.

[16] Natural Sciences-Geography during 1956–57.

[17] Geology included beginning with 1956–57.

[18] Telecommunications included beginning with 1955–56.

[19] Telecommunications shifted to the Faculty of Electrotechniques during 1955–56.

[20] Philology-History beginning with 1954–55.

[21] Geology-Geography during 1954–55.

[22] Natural Sciences-Chemistry beginning with 1955–56.

[23] Natural Sciences-Geography beginning with 1956–57.

Distribution by Field

It is interesting to note that although the State has made special efforts to direct students from so-called "nonproductive" fields such as law and the humanities (the most popular ones between the two World Wars), the proportion of students in these fields continues to be relatively high. Of the 61,980 students during 1959–60, 19,252 were in the faculties of philology, philosophy, law, economics, physical culture and sports, plastic and performing arts, and music. And the figure 19,252 does not cover students majoring in history, who were listed together with those specializing in geology and geography.

Especially interesting is the case of the law students. Considered a typically "bourgeois" field of study, law is deliberately de-emphasized in the "socialist" countries. Thus, the total number of students attending the faculties of law in the Rumanian institutions of higher learning declined from 5,534 in 1948–49 to 1,672 in 1952–53. Beginning with 1953–54, however, their number again began to increase and by 1957–58 it had reached an all-time high of 8,032.

First-Year Students

A comparison of the number of first-year students specializing in various fields during 1955–56, 1958–59, and 1959–60 is revealing:[65]

Field	*1955–56*	*1958–59*	*1959–60*
Mining	255	136	110
Electrotechnology	704	271	353
Electronics and telecommunication	232	124	185
Metallurgy	92	56	65
Industrial chemistry	590	320	324
Light industry	285	61	85
Mechanization of agriculture	183	93	160
General medicine	1,531	484	1,049
Stomatology	189	89	180
Pharmacology	167	85	201

Although noteworthy increases have occurred in a few fields such as oil and gas exploitation, petroleum equipment, agriculture, and mathematics and physics (areas of immediate practical importance to the State), the number of first-year students specializing in essentially "nonproductive" fields has varied considerably during the same period. For example:[66]

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[65] *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1959* and *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1959 and 1960, respectively. p. 280–87 and 388–89, respectively. For enrollments in 1961–62, see table V.

Field	*1955–56*	*1958–59*	*1959–60*
Law	1,519	2,559	1,064
History and philology	963	1,145	586
Philosophy	69	107	99
Plastic arts	23	40	40
Music and composition	86	169	204

Technical Faculties

The fluctuation in enrollment of the various disciplines cited may have been due (1) to an overall enrollment decrease during the same period (from 77,633 in 1955–56 to 67,849 in 1958–59 and to 61,980 in 1959–60) and (2) to a change in enrollment quotas in accordance with the requirements of the national economy as determined by the State.

In spite of the fluctuations, the importance of the 1959–60 enrollment in the technical faculties cannot be minimized. During that year more than 25,000 students were registered in these faculties, a figure almost equal to that of the entire student body in 1938–39.[67] Of the 47,000 specialists who graduated in 1956–57, 47 percent were engineers and agronomists, and over 29 percent physicists, chemists, mathematicians, etc. Of all the graduates of the technical schools of higher learning during 1948–59, 25 percent were trained in metallurgy and machine construction, over 15 percent in electrotechnology, about 10 percent in industrial chemistry, and almost 18 percent in architecture and constructions.[68]

Evening Schools and Correspondence Courses

The number of students in the evening schools of the institutions of higher learning is extremely small. Of the total student body of 61,980 only 611 were in the evening schools. Students taking correspondence courses, however, constituted more than one fourth of the student body, or 16,594. In line with the State's policy of keeping more and more students in production while pursuing their studies, the number of day students was reduced from the 1954–55 high of

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[66] Aurelia Apostolescu, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

[67] *Ibid.*

[68] *Ibid.*

61,948 to a 1959–60 low of 44,775. This figure, in fact, was lower than the previous low for day students of 48,676 in 1948–49—11 years earlier. By contrast, the number of correspondence-course students during the same 11 years[69] presented the following picture:

Year	*Number of correspondence-course students*
1948–49	0
1949–50	1,614
1957–58	29,475
1959–60	16,594

Table 31.—University enrollment, by year: 1956–57 and 1959–60; and university-age population, by urban or rural area and sex: Census of February 21, 1956

Enrollment		
University year	Academic year	
	1956–57	1959–60
Total (I-VI)	81,206	61,980
Day session	56,170	44,775
Evening session	521	611
Correspondence courses	24,515	16,594
I		
Total	19,819	14,937
II		
Total	16,256	10,880
III		
Total	16,100	11,747
IV		
Total	17,100	11,461
V		
Total	10,303	9,353
VI		
Total	1,628	3,602

University-age population			
Age group	Total	Urban	Rural
Total (18-23)	1,914,258	645,246	1,269,012
Male	956,967	339,782	671,185
Female	957,291	305,464	651,827
18			
Total	327,878	108,672	219,206
Male	161,983	56,270	105,713
Female	165,895	52,402	113,493
19			
Total	308,130	100,176	207,954
Male	149,916	50,870	99,046
Female	158,214	49,306	108,908
20			
Total	338,911	106,326	232,585
Male	174,260	56,020	118,240
Female	164,651	50,306	114,345
21			
Total	297,818	107,385	190,433
Male	154,463	60,276	94,187
Female	143,355	47,109	96,246
22			
Total	315,853	114,354	201,499
Male	156,475	62,739	93,736
Female	159,378	51,615	107,763
23			
Total	325,668	108,333	217,335
Male	159,870	53,607	106,263
Female	165,798	54,726	111,072

SOURCE OF DATA: The figures are derived from *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960* and *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1957*. Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960 and 1957 ,respectively. p. 74–75, 388–89; and 202, respectively.

Composition of the Student Body

Ever since its open assumption of power early in 1948, the Communist Party has devoted considerable interest to "improving the social composition of students." Higher education in the Rumania of the period between the two World Wars was to a considerable extent the prerogative of the well-to-do, although occasionally a few outstanding students from poor families managed to receive some kind of scholarships. After the 1948 educational reform the State pursued a discriminatory policy aimed at gradually eliminating students of "bourgeois or otherwise unreliable origin" and concurrently increasing the number of students of proletarian background.[70]

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[69] For enrollment figures 1959–60 to 1961–62 see appendix table IV.

The Government estimated that by 1957 the percentage of students of "proletarian" origin had increased by 50 percent over the 1948 level. This progress, however, was held to be inadequate, and increasing pressure was brought for further "improving" of the social composition of the students. It was felt that the student body still did "not reflect the existing numerical and class relationship of the workers in relation to the country's total population." The State consequently laid plans to increase further the percentage of students of working class origin to 40, and together with students of peasant origin, to 70–75 percent of the total student body.[71] To achieve this aim the socialist enterprises and the executive committees of the people's councils were requested to cooperate by granting scholarships to these students for their entire schooling period. Initiated during the 1957–58 academic year, the scholarship program is carried out under the auspices of the institutions of higher learning with the participation of the enterprise and the people's councils that select the candidates.[72] The successful candidates sign contracts with the scholarship donors. Under the terms of these contracts they undertake, after completing their studies, to work in areas assigned them by the enterprises and the council. They fulfill their practical training obligations in these enterprises, which are entrusted also with supervising their behavior. Winners of scholarship competition examinations may enter the first year of school without taking any other qualifying examination.

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[70] See section III of Decision No. 1003 /1957

[71] Article 21 of Decree 1003 /1957. In his speech at the Second National Conference of the Union of Student Associations, Feb. 19, 1959, Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej maintained that 90 percent of the students were of such origin. *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Feb. 20, 1959.

[72] Article 22 of Decree 1003 /1957. The Government has attempted various types of scholarship programs. In 1955, for example, it granted a number of 1-year scholarships to workers, civil servants, engineers, and technicians who planned to pursue their specialization in fields specified by the State plans (Decision No. 1664 of the Council of Ministers, Aug. 15, 1955). The number of scholarships granted annually is established by the Ministry of Education in concurrence with the State Planning Committee and the Ministry of Finance (Decision No. 1959 of the Council of Ministers, Oct. 10, 1956). According to a report submitted by the president of the Union of Student Associations of the R.P.R. to the Third National Conference of the Union (Feb. 2–3, 1961), almost 65 percent of the students were receiving scholarships, over 62 percent were living in student homes, and 65 percent were eating in canteens. A report of the Central Commission of Auditors submitted by the president of the commission stated that in 1959–60 20,000 students were sent to rest homes or camps—a 30-percent increase over the number in 1957–58. *Viața Studențească*, Bucharest, Feb. 10, 1961. The system of scholarships and other forms of material aid granted to students was somewhat changed in November 1962. See Decision No. 1054 in *Colecția de hotărîri și dispoziții ale Consiliului de Miniștri al Republicii Populare Romîne*, Bucharest, XI:34:396–404, Nov. 14, 1962.

Further to facilitate transforming the social composition of the students measures have been taken to aid working-class children attending the last two years of high school. Special preparatory courses are organized to help them take the entrance examinations given by the institutions of higher learning. These preparatory courses are usually organized before the end of the regular academic year and are open to both current and previous graduates of a high school. During the regular academic year instruction is restricted to 5 hours a week on Sunday; it is given under the auspices of the education section of the people's councils. During the summer the institutions of higher learning themselves are responsible for the instruction.

In addition, special "workers' schools" with only evening and correspondence sections have been organized for workers with experience in production but no formal high school study.

The State makes a special attempt to "improve" the social composition of the student body in secondary, vocational, and technical schools, particularly in grades 8 to 11.[73] Its concern for such an "improvement" is also reflected in the relatively large number of scholarships granted annually. In 1961 over 60 percent of the students had some type of scholarship.[74]

Many of the scholarship students room and board in student hostels (*cămine*) and canteens. In 1959–60, 24,248 of the total 61,980 lived in the 102 hostels and 24,382 had their meals in the 52 canteens. These figures, impressive as they are, however, show a considerable decline in comparison with the number of students rooming and boarding in 1953–54. In that year, of the 80,593 students, 30,495 roomed in 154 hostels and 39,120 ate in the 70 canteens then existing.[75]

Evening Schools and Correspondence Courses

The system of evening schools and correspondence courses operating within the framework of the institutions of higher learning was first introduced in Rumania in 1950. It was designed primarily to facilitate the formation of a new generation of highly skilled workers and professionals of "proletarian" origin needed by the expanding planned economy. Envisioned as including only students directly employed in industry, agriculture, constructions, or transportation, these schools apparently failed to fulfill the mission expected of them by the State. Although they had graduated about 6,000 students by 1959, the composition of the student body was felt to be unsatisfactory.

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[73] For further details on the discriminatory policies followed in Rumania and the other people's democracies see Neal Buhler *and* Stanley Zukowski, *Discrimination in Education in the People's Democracies.* New York: Mid–European Studies Center, 1955. 61 p.

[74] Report by Cornel Burtică. *Viaţa Studenţească*, Bucharest, Feb. 10, 1961.

[75] See table 181 of *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960. op. cit.*, p. 368–69.

According to official criticism,[76] the schools accepted many students who were not gainfully employed or who failed in their day school studies. Others were enabled to enter the schools without fulfilling all the requirements (some students had not even completed high school) or were permitted to complete 2 years of studies in one academic year, with resulting incompetence and incomplete grasp of the subjects. Still others failed to attend classes regularly or to take the final examinations. Perhaps the severest criticism was directed towards the practice of allowing so-called "hooligan elements" (that is, students hostile to the State) to enter the schools and towards the practice of condoning fragmentation of courses. The latter, it was felt, prevented concentration of efforts on industrial and agricultural technical education and instead led to a series of specializations not needed by the economy.

Increasing pressure by the Party and its affiliated organizations brought about the first reorganization of these schools in March 1959.[77] Accordingly, students are admitted to the first year on the basis of competition. Persons fulfilling certain preliminary conditions may compete. Only those persons may apply who (a) are employed as skilled workers, foremen, or technicians in industrial or agricultural enterprises, with a record of at least 3 years of employment; (b) have graduated from a secondary school of general education and possess a *bacalaureat* or equivalent degree; and (c) are children of workers. Candidates to be recommended for the competitive admission examinations are selected at the enterprise by a commission composed of the director of the enterprise, the delegate of the Party organization, the chairman of the enterprise committee, and the secretary of the UTM organization. Preference is given to those applicants in production who have excelled in their work and studies, especially those who also "participate in civic affairs," i.e., Party activities. The admission examinations may also be taken by State, Party, and civic organization employees recommended by the appropriate Ministry or central organization. These employees, however, must previously have completed 3 years in production and be under 35 years of age.

Similar opportunities are given to teachers of grades 5–7 in the villages who do not have the necessary qualifications. These teachers must be under 35 years of age, have at least 3 years' experience in education, and be recommended by a commission composed of the chief of the education section of the district (*raional*) people's council, a delegate of the *raional* Party committee, and a delegate of the *raional* trade union council. Special consideration is given to those teachers who excel in their profession, have participated in the campaign for the "cultural enlightenment of the masses and the socialist transformation of agriculture," and are children of workers, peasants, or teachers.[78]

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[76] See preamble to the decision of March 1959 reorganizing the system of evening and correspondence schools. *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Mar. 11, 1959.

[77] For text of the March 1959 decision of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party and of the Council of Ministers of the Rumanian People's Republic concerning improvement of the evening schools and correspondence courses see *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Mar. 11, 1959.

Although these stipulations and requirements were left basically unchanged, the system of evening schools and correspondence courses operating within the framework of the institutions of higher learning underwent a second reorganization in October 1962.[79] The evening schools, now apparently operating only under the auspices of the technical institutes, may be attended by skilled workers and technicians employed in the State-owned industrial, agricultural, and economic enterprises or in the Party and State organizations; and by active officers of the Ministry of the Armed Forces or the Ministry of Internal Affairs who fulfill the requirements stipulated in the Decision of March 1959.

The correspondence courses, on the other hand, are now organized under the auspices of universities and teacher-training and economics institutes. Registration in these correspondence courses is restricted to courses in specific faculties (schools) as determined by the employment background of the applicants; specifically, to:

- ★the faculties of education in universities and teacher-training institutes for preschool, primary, and secondary school teachers
- ★the faculties of philology, history, and philosophy for the activists in cultural establishments and the editorial workers of newspapers and book-printing enterprises
- ★the faculties of philosophy, history, law, and economics for activists in Party and mass organizations and in people's councils
- ★the faculties of law, economics, philology, history, and philosophy for active officers of the Ministry of the Armed Forces and the Ministry of Internal Affairs
- ★the faculty of economics for those employed in accounting, cost, finance and credit, planning, labor, wages, statistics, and supply and circulation of goods
- ★the faculty of law for those employed in the court system, the procurator's office, State arbitration, and the legal offices of enterprises, State institutions, and civic organizations
- ★the Institute of Physical Culture and Sports for those engaged in sports having classification I or II.

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[78] *Ibid.*

[79] Decision No. 1052 of Oct. 23, 1962. *Colecţia de hotărîri şi dispoziţii ale Consiliului de Miniştri al Republicii Populare Romîne.* Bucharest, XI:32:359–70, Nov. 10, 1962.

To facilitate the work of correspondence-course students, special provisions were made for establishing study circles (*cercuri de studii*)[80] in the large work centers. Further, the institutions of higher learning having evening schools and correspondence courses are expected to guide these students, to establish laboratory facilities, and print the necessary textbooks.

In contrast to the pre-1959 system, only one academic year's work may be completed in one academic year. The student body was reshaped in accordance with the new political directives by allowing the "children of proletarian origin" to continue their studies upon submitting the required recommendations of their employers. All others, especially the "hooligans" and those having no high school or equivalent degree, were expelled.[81]

Student privileges in the evening schools and correspondence courses of the institutions of higher learning are similar to those in the corresponding entities of the schools of general education.[82]

Graduation and Diploma Work

The State Examinations

Higher education terminates in state examination (*examen de stat*).[83] In the polytechnical and technical institutes, the public examination takes the form of defending a diploma project. This project is expected to reflect the student's mastery of his specialized field and to demonstrate his ability to cope with a research assignment. In fields other than engineering the research is known as a diploma thesis and relates to the student's independent research. In science and engineering the student is expected to carry out a diploma project based on experimental work in the laboratory or on field investigations. At the universities, teacher-training institutes, and medical–pharmaceutical, agronomic and economics institutes, the State examination consists of written diploma work as well as oral examinations in two or three subjects. At the arts institutes, the examination is limited to the presentation of an original work created during the last year of studies. In certain other fields and subjects, the written and oral examinations are supplemented by practical examinations. These are given to evaluate the candidate's readiness to take his place in production or field of specialization. When candidates have successfully passed all the examinations and fulfilled the necessary requirements they are given a college diploma called *licenţă* (license). Offered twice a year, the State examinations must be taken within 2½ years after completion of the study programs and may be repeated only twice. Students who have failed in both attempts or who do not take the examinations within the prescribed time limit receive, instead of the graduation diploma, a "study certificate" (*certificat de studii*), which lists the subjects taken and the grades received. These certificate holders are barred from graduate studies and are assigned to production as technicians.

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[80] These study circles were first established in 1957 under Decision No. 1009 relating to provisions for employees who lack the required academic or professional qualifications to complete their studies. For text see Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1957, 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1957. p. 139–43.

[81] For an evaluation of the number of students in the evening schools and correspondence courses, see p. 147ff.

[82] See chapter IV, p. 82ff.

[83] The State examination system was first regulated in January 1950. See "Organizarea examenului de stat al învăţămîntului superior" (The Organization of the State Examination in Higher Education) in *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, II:4:31–32, Jan. 17, 1950. It was reorganized in July 1959 under Decision No. 995 of the Council of Ministers. For text, see Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1959, 1 Iulie–30 August.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1959. p. 97–99.

In September 1960, however, increasing needs of the socialized economy for additional engineers and other types of professional personnel forced the Government to amend these provisions, allowing all candidates who had missed the deadline or had failed to pass the State examination to take it again during the 1960–61 examination session.[84]

With certain exceptions, students preparing for the State examination receive State scholarships for 1 month.

The Aspirature System

Since 1950 the Rumanian institutions of higher learning have also had the aspirature (*aspirantura*) system. Organized under the auspices of the institutions of higher learning and the scientific research institutes of the Academy of the Rumanian People's Republic, this system aims to provide the researchers and specialists needed by the scientific and research institutions. The duration of studies is 3 years, but for exceptional students is reduced to 2.[85] The last year is devoted to preparation of the thesis.

In 1953 a 4-year correspondence course for the aspirature was also established; but university and high school instructors having teaching experience of at least 2 and 3 years, respectively, could take a 1-year course for the title.[86]

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[84] See Decision No. 1213, Sept. 3, 1960, in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1960, 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1961. p. 68.

[85] Reduced to 1 year for faculty members of the institutions of higher learning having at least 2 years of academic background. *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, II:4:24, Jan. 17, 1950.

[86] See Decree No. 291 in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1953, 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1953 p 5-6

To qualify for the aspirature the applicant must possess a diploma from an institution of higher learning, be under 40 years of age, and pass the admission examination usually given annually in September. This examination consists of four parts: (1) foundations of Marxism-Leninism, (2) the field of speciality, (3) Russian, (4) another foreign language (French, German, or English). After he has completed his studies, the aspirant must publicly defend an original thesis prepared under the guidance of a professor in his speciality. The successful aspirant receives the title of "candidate in science" (*candidat în ştiinţe*), granted by the Ministry of Education through the High Commission on Diplomas (*Comisia superioară de diplome*).[87]

The Doctorate

The "candidates in science" may continue their studies for the doctorate. The duration of studies is also 3 years and the time is devoted entirely to preparing the doctoral dissertation, which is expected to be an "original work of high scientific quality." Applicants for the doctorate must pass an admission examination in the same four subjects specified for the aspirature applicants.

The doctoral dissertation must be defended publicly before a commission appointed by the Ministry of Education. The doctorate title may also be accorded to persons who have made outstanding contributions to the scientific, literary, or artistic fields, even though they cannot meet the formal scholastic requirements for the degree.[88] This title, like that of the aspirature, is granted by the Ministry of Education through the High Commission on Diplomas.

The High Commission on Diplomas

As organized in 1953, the High Commission on Diplomas operates within the framework of the Committee on Higher Education (*Comitetul pentru învăţămîntul superior*) attached to the Council of Ministers.[89] The following major tasks fall within its competence:

- ★granting academic ranks to teachers in the institutions of higher learning
- ★annuling decisions of the institutions of higher learning and the research institutes concerning the granting of doctoral and "candidate-in-science" degrees
- ★reviewing appeals against these decisions.

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[87] Decree No. 13. *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, II:4:23, Jan. 17, 1950

[88] Decree No. 15. *Ibid*, p. 24.

[89] Decision No. 26 of the Council of Ministers of Jan. 5, 1953. Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri, şi dispoziţii 1953, 1 Ianuarie–28 Februarie.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1953. p. 50–53.

The Commission is composed of a president (who is also the President of the Committee on Higher Education), a deputy (one of the vice-presidents of the Committee), a scientific secretary, and several other members. The first three officers also constitute the so-called permanent leadership bureau (*Birou permanent de conducere*) of the Commission. The bureau makes preliminary investigations, whenever needed, of questions pertaining to the granting of academic ranks and titles; studies petitions by students requesting to be excused from taking the examinations for the degree of "candidate in science;" establishes the equivalency of foreign diplomas; and approves the scientific titles obtained from a local or foreign institution before 1952.

The Academy of the Rumanian People's Republic

Graduate research—frequently connected with Government-sponsored projects—may be pursued not only at institutions of higher learning that offer advanced courses and higher degrees but also at the specialized research institutes of the Academy of the Rumanian People's Republic.

Formerly known as the Academy of Sciences (*Academia de ştiinţe*), the Academy of the Rumanian People's Republic (*Academia Republicii Populare Romîne*) is a State institution operating under the jurisdiction of the Council of Ministers.[90]

The Academy was set up to do the following:

★contribute to the general enhancement of the sciences, letters, and the arts

★develop and exploit scientific and cultural attainments in close cooperation with production for the purposes of "socialist construction"

★maintain scientific relations with other countries.

In order to achieve these aims, the Academy, according to its statute, does the following:

★carries out research on its own initiative or at the request of various State institutions or governmental organs

★evaluates the natural resources and productive forces of the country through application of scientific means

★coordinates the entire scientific and cultural activity of the country

★collaborates with foreign scientific institutions for the solution of common problems.

The Academy is made up of honorary, titular, and corresponding members. Guided in its scientific and political work by the fundamental principles of Marxism-Leninism, it restricts membership to persons adhering to the basic policies of the State. No persons may become members if they have ever been convicted of "fascist or reactionary" activities, have lost their citizenship, or have engaged in "antidemocratic acts against the best interests of the people or the people's democratic regime."[91]

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[90] See the Academy's statute approved by the Council of Ministers under Decision No. 1214, July 11, 1955, in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1955, 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1955. p. 80–97.

The Academy is organized into sections, branch offices, institutes, and commissions.

The Academy's eight sections are the following: (1) Mathematical and Physical Sciences; (2) Chemical Sciences; (3) Technical Sciences; (4) Biology and Agronomical Sciences; (5) Geology and Geography; (6) Medical Sciences; (7) Economic, Philosophical, and Juridical Sciences; (8) Historical Sciences, Language, Literature and the Arts. The latter is divided into three subsections; Historical Sciences, Language and Literature, and the Arts.[92] Each section or subsection is headed by a president elected for a 3-year term. Assisted by a technical-scientific secretariat, the president is responsible to the Presidium of the Academy for the section's work—the organization, administration, and guidance of scientific activity.

Branch offices are located at Iaşi and Cluj and research institutes at Timişoara and Tîrgu-Mureş. A branch is composed of Academy members living in a given region. Each branch is led by a bureau consisting of a president, a secretary, and a few members.

The scientific activity of the Academy is carried out through its research institutes.[93] Established by the presidium of the Academy with the concurrence of the Council of Ministers, the institutes are under the leadership of a director and several scientific adjunct directors. For guiding and coordinating their work, each institute has a scientific council (*Consiliu ştiinţific*), which functions on a consultative basis. The council is composed of a president, a vice-president, a secretary, and a number of members who must not necessarily be members of the Academy. The directors, adjunct directors, and secretaries of the institutes are *ex officio* members of the scientific council.

In addition to its sections and institutes, the Academy has 10 permanent commissions:

★Commission for the Coordination of All Scientific Activities of the Country

★Commission on Scientific Relations With Foreign Countries

★Scientific Commission on Museums and Historical and Artistic Monuments

★Commission for the Study of the Formation of the Rumanian Language and Nation

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[91] *Ibid.*

[92] For the membership of the various sections and subsections see *The World of Learning 1960–61.* London: Europa Publications, 1961. p. 825–26.

[93] For the list of the research institutes operating under the auspices of the Academy, together with information on their location and directors, see *The World of Learning, op. cit.*, p. 826–28.

★Commission on the Protection of Natural Monuments

★Commission on the Coordination of Agricultural, Forestry, and Zoo-technical Activities and on the Valuation of Unproductive Terrains

★Commission on Hydrology

★Commission on Automation

★Commission on Acoustics

★Commission on Natural Resources.

The highest organ of the Academy theoretically determining policy and overall guidance is the general assembly, composed of its titular members. Between sessions, the Academy's work is guided and conducted by a presidium composed of the president of the Academy, a number of vice presidents, the presidents of the sections and branches, and the first secretary of the Academy.[94] They are elected with the concurrence of the Council of Ministers for a period of 3 years. The presidium meets at least once a month and its day-to-day work is carried out by a permanent bureau, which includes the president, a number of vice presidents, the first secretary, and a few members. The bureau's work is assisted by the secretariat of the Academy, the executive organ of the presidium. Like the other officers of the Academy, the first secretary is also elected for a 3-year term. He is assisted by an adjunct secretary and several scientific secretaries. The latter are appointed by the presidium of the Academy with the concurrence of the Council of Ministers.

The Academy maintains its own publishing facilities and also a number of well-stocked libraries. In addition, it administers and guides several museums, art galleries, and cultural institutions.[95]

The president of the Academy is for all practical purposes the prime coordinator of the country's scientific activities. Through the presidium and in accordance with the general directives of the Party and Government, he decides what projects the various branches of science should consider, their mode of operation, and the allocation of funds. The Academy is generously supported by the Government, which encourages basic research, especially in the natural and physical sciences. The Academy's role is deemed particularly important in the training of scientific personnel needed by the national economy and in raising the level of the postgraduate training system for scientific and science-teaching cadres. The Academy cooperates in achieving these goals, and shares responsibility with the institutions of higher learning.[96]

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[94] For the composition of the presidium in 1960–61 see *ibid.*, p. 825.

[95] For a list of these cultural and scientific establishments, see *ibid.*, p. 828–30.

[96] For a summary report on the scientific activities of the various sections of the Academy in 1960 see *Contemporanul*, Bucharest, Feb. 17, 1961.

Chapter VII

Teachers and the Teaching Profession

Retraining Program

ONE OF THE FIRST PROFESSIONS to be purged by the Rumanian Communists following the establishment of the people's democratic State early in 1948 was the teaching profession. A great number of teachers at all levels were summarily dismissed because of their "past reactionary attitudes" or were later suspended because of their "political unreliability."[1] The remainder, together with the newly hired inexperienced though politically "reliable" teachers, were given a series of "educational courses" aimed at improving both their professional qualifications and their political attitudes. Under the initiation of the Communist Party, the Ministry of Education introduced in 1948 the so-called system of "courses for the guidance of teaching cadres" (*Cursuri de îndrumare a cadrelor didactice*). As a stopgap measure these guidance courses were first offered only in Bucharest and Predeal.[2] Lasting for 2 months, they aimed to prepare the core of "leading personnel" that the State needed for the reorganization of the elementary schools.

During the initial period these courses were attended by 3,877 teachers. After graduating, these Party-trained teachers supervised and guided the implementation of the 1948 educational reforms by the approximately 80,000 teachers of the country[3] and saw to it that the reforms were carried out in accordance with the Party's wishes.

Teaching and Administrative Staff

Kindergartens

Preprimary educational establishments are staffed by women—graduates of the teacher-training schools for women (*şcoli pedagogice*

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[1] For further details see *The Perversion of Education in Rumania*. Washington: The Rumanian National Committee, July 1950. 96 p.

[2] See article by Cornelia Teodorescu in *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, (Journal of Education), Bucharest. Dec. 20, 1957.

[3] *Ibid.*

de educatoare) or the teacher-training institutes.[4] Upon appointment, they receive the rank of "educator" (*educatoară*). Kindergarten teachers teach an average of 6 hours a day. They work under the overall control and guidance of kindergarten directors who also usually are women (*directoară de grădiniţă de copii*). During the academic year, the kindergarten teachers hold monthly staff conferences, exchanging experiences in teaching and methodology.[5]

Schools of General Education and Vocational Schools

Administrative staff.—Qualifications for administrative personnel in primary, secondary, and vocational schools and the responsibilities assigned to them are carefully drawn up by the central governmental organs.[6]

Each school is administered by a director or principal (*director*), who is assisted by an adjunct or assistant director (*director adjunct*). To be appointed director or assistant director of an elementary school a candidate must hold the rank of "teacher" or be a graduate of a teacher-training school. For the 7-year and secondary schools, the requirements are more stringent: In the case of the director or assistant, a candidate must hold the rank of professor in education and must have completed his higher education requirements. In applying for a position as director of a vocational school for apprentices, a candidate must also show proof of at least 10 years' experience in production.

Vacancies are filled in order of the candidates' seniority in education, professional competence, and political reliability. The Ministry of Education appoints secondary school directors on the recommendation of the chiefs of the regional education sections. Like teachers and professors, assistant directors of secondary schools and directors and assistant directors of elementary schools are appointed by the chiefs of the regional education sections on the recommendation of the chiefs of the district (*raional*) and urban education sections.[7]

Teaching staff.—The faculty is composed of regular teachers and assistants. In terms of position, the teachers rank as follows: professor (*profesor*), master instructor (*maistru instructor*), teacher (*învăţător*), higher pioneer instructor (*instructor superior de pionieri*), leader of pioneer circles (*conducător de cercuri pioniereşti*), leader of pioneer activities (*conducător de activităţi pionierești*). The assistants usually include a pedagogue (*pedagog*) and a laboratory worker (*laborant*). The pedagogues are concerned primarily with the activities of residents in school dormitories.

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[4] See Decree No. 432 in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1957, 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie*. Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1957, p. 7.

[5] See also p. 34ff.

[6] See particularly Decision No. 387 of March 27, 1956 in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1956, 1 Martie–30 Aprilie*. Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1956. p. 134–42. See also Decision No. 1390 of August 12, 1954, cited below.

[7] See Decision No. 1390 of August 12, 1954, in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1954, 1 Iulie–31 August*. Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1954. p. 114–18.

The rank of teacher is accorded the graduates of teacher-training and equivalent schools[8] who have fulfilled all requirements to teach in elementary schools. The professorial rank is given to graduates of universities, teacher-training institutes, or institutions of higher learning of equivalent level.[9] Professors are entitled to teach in 7-year, high, or teacher-training schools, which of the three depending upon the level of their scholastic preparation. Graduates of the 2-year teacher-training institutes are entitled to teach only in grades 1 through 7; those of the 4-year teacher-training institutes and of universities are also qualified to teach in grades 1 through 11.[10]

The ranks are granted by the Ministry of Education on the basis of recommendations made by Attesting Commissions (*Comisii de atestare*).

Attesting Commissions

Organized by the education sections of the regional people's councils, the Attesting Commissions have a number of well-defined attributes.[11] They screen the teachers employed in the schools of general education and make recommendations relating to the granting of ranks. They also prepare reports on the teachers' social background, professional competence, and political activity. Each commission is composed of a representative of the regional section of education who serves as president, two to four instructors (one of whom serves as the commission's secretary) and a delegate of the regional trade union council. The members are appointed by the Ministry of Education on the recommendation of the regional sections of education.

Special Inspection System

The special inspection differs from the usual individual or group inspections not only in its complex character and emphasis on the elements of control and constancy, but also in the fact that the diverse activities of the teachers inspected are analyzed in their total content to ascertain whether they "contribute to the accomplishment of the principal goal of the schools—the Communist instruction and education of the youth and the raising of the cultural level of the masses."[12]

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[8] See appendix 1 of Decision No. 1390 cited above for a list of schools operating before August 1948 which were deemed equivalent to the teacher-training schools.

[9] See appendix 2 of Decision No. 1390 for a list of institutions of higher learning functioning before August 1948 which were deemed equivalent to the present universities or teacher-training institutes or were absorbed by them.

[10] See Decree No. 313 of August 9, 1954 in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1954, 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1054. p. 56–58.

[11] Decision No. 1390 of Aug. 12, 1954, cited above.

The functions of the special inspection and the close scrutiny the teachers must undergo for the attainment of these educational goals can be gauged from the following quotation:

> The objectives which are pursued in this investigation pertain to the principal duties of the instructors and professors in their instructive-educational work with the students and in their social-cultural and public activity carried on both in and outside the school. In regard to the instructive-educational work, the special investigation has as its objective an analysis of the professional and political-ideological preparation of those inspected, their activity in class and outside of class and school, their leadership capability, their teaching method, etc. In investigating these aspects the inspector will definitely assess the ideological and scientific content of the lessons given by the instructor or professor inspected and how this is assimilated by the students; the teacher's concern for the intellectual orientation of the students regarding the dialectic-materialist concept of nature and society, and for the students' atheistic-scientific education; the way in which the teacher, through lectures and other activities, demonstrates the ties between school and life, between theory and practice; the level of the scientific and political-ideological preparation of the students and their practical demonstration of this preparation; the teacher's use or nonuse of the most suitable means for the patriotic and internationalist education of the students, for the formation of logical thinking, and for instruction in the proper conduct for exhibiting this education; the teacher's pedagogical subtlety, his comportment during lectures, his attitude toward the students, his working style, and whether or not his example is worthy of being followed. Likewise, the inspector will judge the extent to which the professor understands and transforms into reality the decisions of the Party and the State concerning education and the regulations and instructions concerning the conduct of school activities; his contribution in giving general applicability to the 7-year schooling, in raising the qualitative standards of instructive-educational work in evening classes and in the preparation of the workers' children; the way in which he collaborates with the youth and parents' organizations for the improvement of work in the schools; etc.
>
> In investigating the social-cultural and public activity of the instructors and professors, the inspection will determine to what extent the teachers fulfill the duties relative to this phase of their educational work as outlined by the Party and the Government, duties which can be determined clearly from statements made at the Congress of Educators by comrade Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej and from numerous other documents of the Party and the State. Accordingly, the inspection must establish the method in which the educational cadre member contributes to the accomplishment of the important objectives of the cultural revolution and the building of socialism in our country, i.e., the popularization and the translation into reality of the decisions of the Party and the State in regard to the development of the national economy according to the socialist pattern, particularly the socialist transformation of agriculture and the develop-

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[12] *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, Bucharest, Jan. 29, 1960, p. 1, 7.

> ment of the Communist conscience of the masses through the popularization of scientific knowledge and atheist propaganda and the awareness of international and domestic political problems.[13]

The methods and procedures of the special inspection are varied. They include direct observation of the academic and extracurricular activities of the teachers involved; personal discussions with both teachers and representatives of the school, and with party and UTM representatives; evaluation of documentary materials such as school records, minutes of the pedagogical councils and the methods commissions, pupils' notebooks and compositions, the writings, if any, of the inspected teachers; and use of questionnaires.

The inspection concludes with the analysis session, which takes place in the presence of the inspected teacher, the principal, and the representative of the Party or mass organizations in the school. The session normally begins with the teacher's self-analysis and ends with the inspector's conclusions.

Appointment and Duties of Teachers

Vacancies are usually filled with candidates who have completed the official requirements for the various positions. They are appointed in order of their seniority, grades, and teaching effectiveness. Theoretically, they cannot be transferred to another school except upon their own request or "in the interests of education".[14]

Teaching degrees are granted and promotions made on the basis of special examinations. To be admitted to these examinations, however, the prospective candidate must successfully pass the scrutiny of a special inspection, which is concerned not only with the effectiveness of his instruction but also with his social activities. Each inspection is rated separately with the average constituting the evaluation of the overall activity of those inspected. In order to be admitted to the examination for a restricted degree, the candidate must obtain an average of at least "7" (neither rating can be less than "6"), and for degree II an average of "8" (neither rating can be less than "7"); for degree I only those teaching cadres are admitted who obtain an average of at least "9" in the special inspection.[15]

Teachers may be dismissed for professional incompetence, for "grave moral acts," for violation of the laws of the people's democratic State and for any behavior deemed incompatible with their teaching position. The dismissal is effectuated by the particular governmental organs which appointed them.[16]

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[13] *Ibid.*

[14] Decision No. 1389. Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1954 1 Iulie–31 August.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1954, p. 109-13.

[15] For details on the special inspection system see p. 161ff.

With the teaching load determined by rank and the particular requirements of the school, teachers put in an average of 6 hours a day. Professors are required to teach at least 3 hours a day (18 per week), master instructors 5 (30 per week), and higher pioneer instructors 6 hours a day during the entire academic year of 35 to 42 weeks.

Teachers who cannot devote the required hours of teaching in their speciality at their own school may do supplementary teaching at another school in the same locality or may teach a related subject. The assistant teaching staff has a workload of 8 hours a day. The difference between the workload and teaching assignment is made up either by the teachers' participation in "methodological activities" or by their contribution to the "cultural campaign." The former usually involves participating in pedagogical council affairs, methodology and school program committee work, and Pioneer and UTM activities within the school. The teachers' participation in "cultural campaigns" is a euphemism for their mobilization in the Party's propaganda work. Theoretically, they are not to devote more than an average of 6 hours a week to this type of activity.

Also, teachers are expected to be active in the "campaign for the eradication of illiteracy" conducted within the framework of the Society for the Dissemination of Science and Culture (*Societatea pentru răspîndirea ştiinţei şi culturii*), to be in the "forefront of the battle against mysticism, superstition, and obscurantism" (i.e., in antireligious propaganda), and to "enlighten" the masses about Party and Government decisions. In the villages, teachers must be in the forefront of the "battle for the socialist transformation of agriculture." When giving talks to the peasants, they must "prove" the superiority of the socialist system as against the capitalist order and "demonstrate" the advantages of collectivized and cooperative agriculture.[17]

Many teachers, especially older ones, refuse to accept the importance of ideological training and simply leave it to the principals and social science instructors. By belittling the achievements of the State under the guise of criticism,[18] they are accused of "slipping on the path of liberalism." Some teachers openly criticize the academic activities of Communists by stating that no valuable scientific work could possibly be achieved by people actively engaged in political affairs.

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[16] Decision No. 1390 cited above.

[17] See article by Traian Galeriu in *Drapelul Roşu*, Timişoara, Apr. 23, 1957. See also I. Mitran, "Mai multă atenţie cadrelor didactice din învăţămîntul de cultură generală" (More Attention to the Teaching Cadres in the Schools of General Education). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXVI:8:78–85, August 1956.

[18] See article by M. Rădoi in *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Jan. 11, 1957.

Relatively well paid, teachers enjoy considerable status and receive special consideration in housing, products distribution, and schooling for their sons and daughters.[19]

The teachers' professional competence and standards, as well as various educational problems, are discussed in the Pedagogical Council (*Consiliul pedagogic*), the Methods Commission (*Comisia metodică*), or the Pedagogical Circle (*Cercul pedagogic*). Among the functions of these organs are the synchronization of the teaching and educational process with the requirements of the curriculum, the development of teaching techniques, and the enhancement of the teachers' professional and methodological training.

The Pedagogical Council, in accordance with instructions of the Ministry of Education, must convene at least five times a year. In most schools, these sessions are devoted to a discussion and solution of organizational problems or to questions confronting education in general. The Pedagogical Circle and the Methods Commission take up questions related to organization of lessons, use of various kinds and procedures of teaching, inculcation of habits, and training in the "spirit of Communist morality."

The Methods Commission varies from school to school. In large schools having at least three teachers for each specialty, the Methods Commission is organized on a discipline basis. In small ones it is organized on an interdisciplinary basis including, for example, all the teachers in the humanities or the natural sciences. Many schools have special commissions concerned with the problems of tying the educational process to the practical requirements of production and known as Commission for the Achievement of Polytechnical Education (*Comisie pentru realizarea învăţămîntului politehnic*). The evening schools have very few such commissions, and the teachers employed in these schools normally attend the meetings of the day-school staff.[20]

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[19] The salary rate is determined by academic function, rank, and seniority. For details see articles 12–33 of Decision No. 387/1956 cited above. The salary scale was increased in July 1959 by an average of 24 to 35 percent. *Scînteia*, Bucharest, July 16, 1959. For more detail see *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Aug. 7, 1959, p. 1. For their own sons and duaghters teachers are granted State allocations under conditions outlined by Decree No. 285 of the Grand National Assembly of Aug. 6, 1960. *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, IX:15:113–19, Aug. 19, 1960.

[20] For greater detail on the methodological approaches followed in the schools of general education see A. Turovţev, "Munca metodică din şcoală şi din cadrul cercurilor pedagogice în lumina sarcinilor actuale ale învăţămîntului" (Methodological Work in the Schools and Within the Framework of the Pedagogical Circles in Light of the Current Tasks of Education). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, X:7:59–70, July 1961. See also O. Roseanu, "Rolul comisiilor metodice în popularizarea experienţei înaintate" (The Role of the Methods Commissions in Popularizing the Advanced Experience). *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Mar. 23, 1962, p. 1, 5.

Incentives and Prizes

For further stimulation of the teachers in their pedagogical and "cultural" activities, the Ministry of Education introduced a system of granting honorary titles and medals.[21] The title "Leading Teacher" (*Învăţător fruntaş*) or "Leading Professor" (*Profesor fruntaş*) is accorded for:

- ★the realization under exemplary conditions of educational obligations
- ★thorough organization and development of the instructional process in the educational unit
- ★outstanding merit in the preparation of school programs and textbooks
- ★outstanding contributions to the revision of subjects and the successful improvement of teaching materials by local means
- ★outstanding results in equipping schools and educational units by local means
- ★outstanding cultural work among the masses
- ★outstanding contributions to the Socialist transformation of agriculture
- ★publication of works summarizing the positive results of the teacher's activity and of the educational institutions; practical application of the teaching of Soviet pedagogy.[22]

Title holders receive from the Ministry of Education an insignia bearing the inscription "Leading Teacher" or "Leading Professor", to be worn on the right side of the chest.

As a further tribute to teachers, June 30 has been celebrated as "Teachers' Day" since 1957.[23] It is on this day that meritorious teachers are decorated and honored for their services. In addition, teachers who have excelled in the work for eradication of illiteracy, in teaching, communal work, or the "organization of activities for raising the theoretical, ideological, and cultural level of teaching cadres," receive special money prizes.[24] Thus, teachers enjoy a relatively great number of privileges and are placed high in the social scale of the new "socialist" society. The Party, however, never loses sight of the fact that the education of youth in the spirit of Communism depends in the first place upon their being properly exposed to political and ideological indoctrination.

The teachers are reminded frequently that their attitude is under observation not only from the point of view of their classroom activities but also from that of their "cultural" endeavors among the masses.

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[21] According to a note published in *Făclia* of Cluj, June 28, 1957, over 1,350 teachers received various distinctions and medals and over 7,000 were rewarded for their activities in the field of education during 1948–56.

[22] See text of Decree No. 717 of Dec. 31, 1956 in *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Mar, 29, 1957.

[23] See Decision No. 590 of the Council of Ministers of Apr. 17, 1957 in *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, June 28, 1957.

[24] See Decision No. 2996 of Sept. 12, 1953, in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii 1953, 1 Septembrie–31 Octombrie.* Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1953. p. 100–02.

Retraining and Refresher Course System

In the period immediately following the 1948 Educational Reform, the State relied on a system of guiding courses for teachers in order to assure their "correct political orientation." After 1950, however, emphasis was placed on improving their professional as well as their ideological qualifications. For this purpose special "central and regional professional guidance courses" were organized under the auspices of the Institute for Upgrading the Teaching Cadres (*Institutul de perfecționare a cadrelor didactice*) of Bucharest.[25] The primary goal is the training or retraining of "experts" through refresher courses lasting from 3 to 4 months. Each teacher must attend them at least once every 5 years.

The refresher courses fulfill a dual purpose in the new educational system. On the one hand the teachers are enabled to keep up with developments in the fields of education, science, and technology; on the other, the Party has an opportunity to exercise its control over, and continue the indoctrination of, the teachers.

The seminar-type courses, lasting about 30 days, are offered during the summer vacation. The results of the examinations closing these courses are considered in the overall evaluation of the teacher's work and in his promotion. During the academic year, the teachers are expected to improve themselves continually by reading, in anticipation of the refresher courses, the books and articles outlined for them in special syllabi. As a preparation for the refresher course in "scientific socialism" offered during the summer of 1959, for example, high school teachers in that field were given a detailed bibliography of references, divided into the following topical sections:

1. Objective and Significance of the Course
   Marxism-Leninism, the Revolutionary Theory of the Working Class
2. Marxist Philosophical Materialism
3. Marxist Dialectics

4-5. Historical Materialism
   Classes and the Class Struggle
   The Historic Role of the Proletariat

6. Social Consciousness and Its Forms
7. Marxism-Leninism on the Revolutionary Party of the Working Class

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[25] See footnote 2 of this chapter.

8. The Socialist Revolution
    - The International Historical Importance of the Great Socialist Revolution of October
    - The People's Democratic Revolution in Rumania
9. The Dictatorship of the Proletariat
    - The People's Democratic State, a Form of Proletarian Dictatorship
10. The Alliance of the Working Class With the Working Peasantry Under the Leadershp of the Working Class
11. The National and National-Colonial Problem
12. Socialist Patriotism, the Driving Force in the Development and Consolidation of Socialist Order in Our Country
13. Marxist-Leninist Teaching About War and Peace
14. The Inevitable Victory of Socialism in the Entire World.[26]

The books and pamphlets recommended are by the four founders and leaders of world communism—Marx, Engels, Lenin, Stalin[27]—by Khrushchev, and by the leader of the Rumanian Communist Party, Gheorghe Gheorghiu-Dej.

Despite these measures, however, the State was dissatisfied with the academic and political performance of teachers and decided to introduce a new State System for Upgrading the Teaching Cadres (*Sistem de stat pentru perfecţionarea cadrelor didactice*). Organized in 1954 in accordance with the provision of Decision No. 1389 of August 1954,[28] the system operates along a pyramidal structure with the apex in the Institute for Upgrading the Teaching Cadres of Bucharest. This central institute guides and supervises the activities of the four interregional branches established during 1954 in Cluj, Iaşi, Timişoara, and Bucharest.

In addition to the regular refresher courses, these institutes also offer a series of occasional consultative sessions in various disciplines for teachers wishing to obtain permanent status or advancement in rank. Short term "perfecting" sessions, usually lasting from 15 to 25 days, are also held periodically with the chiefs of, or the inspectors employed by, the education sections of the regional or district (*raional*) people's councils or with the directors of the schools of general education.[29]

To complement the activities of these institutes, a special section, under whose overall guidance they operate, was established in the Ministry of Education in 1956. Its special function is to coordinate the implementation of the Party directives that call for greater emphasis on raising the teachers' professional and ideological qualifications.[30] Instructors employed in these institutes have the same work load and salary scale as those in the institutions of higher learning.

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[26] *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, June 19, 1959, p. 7.

[27] Stalin's works were gradually eliminated after 1956.

[28] Decision No. 1389, *op. cit*.

[29] *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Jan. 5, 1962, p. 4; Mar. 9, 1962, p. 8.

Teacher-Training Schools and Institutes

Kindergarten and Primary School Teachers

Before 1948 the kindergarten and primary school teachers were trained at special normal schools (*şcoli normale*). With a schooling period of 7 years, these normal schools admitted the graduates of the 4-year elementary schools. The first 3 years of the teacher-training program were devoted primarily to general education subjects, while the last 4 years emphasized the professional pedagogical program. Upon completing the 7-year course, students had to take the so-called "capacity" State examination. The successful candidates qualified for probational appointment in the preprimary and elementary school systems. After 3 years of practice teaching, probational appointees could apply for permanent appointment if they passed a second State examination, which they took after completing the probationary period.

Following the 1948 Educational Reform, the normal schools were transformed into teacher-training schools. There are teacher-training schools for women (*şcoală pedagogică de educatoare*) and separate ones for men (*şcoală pedagogică de învăţători*). At first these schools offered a 4-year professional teacher-training program to graduates of the 7-year schools who passed the admission examinations. When the schools of general education were reorganized in 1956, the standards of the teacher-training schools were raised. Beginning with the 1956-57 academic year, the teacher-training schools were reorganized to provide 6 years of professional training for graduates of the 7-year schools. Also, with the gradual dissolution of the 4-year teacher-training schools, a number of 2- and 3-year teacher-training institutes were established.

Enrollment[31]

In 1961–62, the 6-year teacher-training schools numbered 21—4 for men and 17 for women, with an enrollment of 8,549. The schools for men enrolled 3,573 and those for women 4,976. During the same

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[30] Cornelia Teodorescu, *op. cit.*

[31] See footnote 44 of chapter II.

Table 32.—Number of teacher-training institutions, students, and graduates, by type of institution and purpose: 1938–39 and 1948–49 through 1959–60

[0 indicates that institution did not exist — indicates that the source did not show any figures]

Item	1938–39	1948–49	1949–50	1950–51	1951–52	1952–53	1953–54	1954–55	1955–56	1956–57	1957–58	1958–59	1959–60
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Teacher-Training Schools													
4-year [1]													
SCHOOLS													
Total	**55**	**64**	**104**	**110**	**110**	**115**	**113**	**57**	**38**	**14**	**0**	**0**	**0**
For male teachers	55	61	87	89	89	90	89	55	37	10	0	0	0
For female kindergarten teachers	0	3	17	20	20	24	23	1	1	4	0	0	0
For physical education teachers	0	0	0	1	1	1	1	1	0	0	0	0	0
STUDENTS													
Total	**5,537**	**14,376**	**27,889**	**33,046**	**34,722**	**28,763**	**27,826**	**13,079**	**6,955**	**3,460**	**1,688**	**0**	**0**
In schools for male teachers [2]	5,537	700	22,698	25,879	26,972	21,666	21,176	11,949	6,378	2,766	1,366	0	0
In schools for female kindergarten teachers [2]	0	0	5,191	6,926	7,368	6,641	6,194	884	437	594	322	0	0
In schools for physical education teachers	0	0	3,710	241	382	454	456	246	140	100	0	0	0
GRADUATES													
Total	**800**	**2,410**	**2,786**	**4,690**	**8,633**	**7,190**	**6,943**	**5,061**	**3,628**	**1,593**	**903**	**0**	**0**
In schools for male teachers	800	2,203	924	3,356	6,329	5,141	5,569	4,677	3,548	1,316	760	0	0
In schools for female kindergarten teachers	0	207	0	1,218	2,200	1,920	1,251	347	37	177	143	0	0
In schools for physical education teachers	0	0	0	116	104	129	123	37	43	100	0	0	0
6-year [1]													
SCHOOLS													
Total	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**13**	**13**	**13**
For male teachers	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	10	11	11
For female kindergarten teachers	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	2	2
STUDENTS													
Total	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**	**995**	**2,854**	**5,016**
In schools for male teachers	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	736	2,097	3,682
In schools for female kindergarten teachers	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	259	757	1,384
Teacher-Training Institutes													
2-year													
Institutes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	7	6	7	7
Students	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	212	389	789	1,518
Graduates	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	203	179	—
3-year													
Institutes	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	5
Students	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1,228

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1960.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1960. p. 364–65.

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[1] Admit graduates of the 7-year schools.

[2] A few have physical education sections.

Table 33.—Three-year teacher-training institutes and their faculties: 1959–60

Institute[1]	*Faculty*
Three-Year Teacher-Training Institute of Bucharest	Philology
(*Institutul pedagogic de 3 ani, București*)	Mathematics
	Physics and Chemistry
	Natural Sciences
	History and Geography
	Plastic Arts
	Physical Education
Three-Year Teacher-Training Institute of Iași	Philology
(*Institutul pedagogic de 3 ani, Iași*)	Mathematics
	Physics and Chemistry
	Natural Sciences
	Plastic Arts
	Physical Education
Three-Year Teacher-Training Institute of Cluj	Philology
(*Institutul pedagogic de 3 ani, Cluj*)	Mathematics
	Physics and Chemistry
	Natural Sciences
	History and Geography
	Plastic Arts
	Physical Education
Three-Year Teacher-Training Institute of Timișoara	Philology
(*Institutul pedagogic de 3 ani, Timișoara*)	Mathematics
	Physics and Chemistry
	Natural Sciences
	History and Geography
	Plastic Arts
	Physical Education
Three-Year Teacher-Training Institute of Galați	Philology
(*Institutul pedagogic de 3 ani, Galați*)	Mathematics
	Physics and Chemistry
	Natural Sciences
Three-Year Teacher-Training Institute of Brașov (Orașul Stalin)	Mathematics
	Physics and Chemistry
(*Institutul pedagogic de 3 ani, Brașov [Orașul Stalin]*)	Natural Sciences
Three-Year Teacher-Training Institute of Tîrgu-Mureș	Philology
(*Institutul pedagogic de 3 ani, Tîrgu-Mureș*)	Physics and Chemistry

SOURCE OF DATA: *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Sept. 8, 1960.

[1] A 3-year teacher-training institute was established in 1962 at Pitești. *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, Bucharest, Oct. 19, 1962.

year the 2-year teacher-training institutes numbered 11, with a total enrollment of 718.[32]

Beginning with 1960–61, the 3-year teacher-training institutes were classified as institutions of higher learning. As a consequence, the faculties (schools) of education in the institutions of higher learning numbered 60, with an enrollment of 10,726. Of these students, 5,568 were in the first year.[33]

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[32] *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1962.* Bucharest: Direcția centrală de statistică, 1962. p. 389.

Admission and Curriculum

The teacher-training institutes accept graduates of the 11-year schools of general education who hold the *bacalaureat* diploma and who pass the competitive admission examinations. These examinations are both oral and written and are given in subjects determined by the various departments of the institutes. In the philology department, for example, they cover the Rumanian language and Rumanian history.[34] In fields such as the arts and physical education the candidate must also pass a practical test. The test, preceding the oral and written examinations, is eliminative.[35]

Directly subordinated to the Ministry of Education, the teacher-training institutes have a general, professional, and special curriculum designed to train educationally competent and well-rounded teachers. Since 1960, the State has placed particular emphasis on training teachers for the 8-year school, envisioned as established by 1965 and as universal, free, and compulsory.[36] The general education curriculum includes Rumanian (or the minority language), Rumanian history, Russian, one other modern language (French, German or English), Latin, world history, geography, mathematics, natural and social sciences, civics, logic, and Marxism-Leninism. The professional subjects include education, history of education, psychology, methodology of teaching, practice teaching, and school hygiene. In specialized subjects, the students get training in such fields as physical education and sports, music and art, manual shop work, agronomy, and agricultural or industrial practical work.

Students who have completed their studies and passed the final comprehensive examinations receive a State diploma qualifying them to teach in kindergartens and the elementary school system.

Secondary School Teachers

To be eligible to teach in a secondary school before 1948, a candidate had to complete a 3- to 4-year study and training course at a university. Although no fundamental changes have been made in this requirement since the 1948 reform, the same privilege is now enjoyed by the graduates of specialized technical institutes of higher learning and teacher-training institutes. Beginning with the 1957–58 academic year, however, the teacher-training programs of the departments of education of the universities were increased to 5 years' duration. The curriculum is to a large extent similar to the one offered by the teacher-training schools for kindergarten and elementary school teachers, but the subjects are taught at a higher level. The program of students preparing for secondary school teaching requires the study of one major and one minor field. In addition, each education student must acquire practical training in school organization and administration, social service work, and the organization of extracurricular youth and parent-teacher activities.

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[33] See appendix tables IV and V.

[34] In addition to the teacher-training schools and institutes, a special institute—the Maxim Gorky Teacher-Training Institute for Russian and Russian Literature (*Institutul pedagogic de limba şi literatura rusă Maxim Gorki*)—was established in Bucharest to provide specialization in this language and literature.

[35] "Condiţii de admitere la Institutele pedagogice de trei ani" (Conditions for Admission to the Three-Year Teacher-Training Institutes). *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Sept. 3, 1960.

[36] *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Mar. 30, 1962. p. 4.

In accordance with the new policy of polytechnization, students majoring in the natural and physical sciences or chemistry serve practical training periods of at least 8 weeks during both the third and fourth years of study. The practical training is performed in industrial or agricultural enterprises. At the end of their studies and academic and practical work requirements, education students must pass a State examination. The successful candidates receive a State Diploma (*Diplomă de stat*) qualifying them for high school teaching.

Practice Teaching

With the reorganization of the teacher-training schools and institutes and of the various departments of education during the 1956–57 academic year, the system of practice teaching was also changed considerably. This system is organized by, and placed under the immediate jurisdiction of, special "Pedagogical Committees" (*Cabinete pedagogice*).[37] Coordinated and guided by these committees, practice teaching is performed in a number of so-called "basic schools" (*şcoli de bază*) specified for each institution of higher learning by the Ministry of Education. The practice teaching program involves not only conducting classes, but also organizing extracurricular activities and studying school and pedagogical council functions, guidance, and school relations with the parents, the Pioneers, and the UTM.

Each education student is expected to assist in 25 demonstration lectures, 15 of them in his special field, 7 in his secondary field, and 3 in elective subjects. In addition, he is expected to give eight practice lessons, five of them in his special, and three in his secondary field.

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[37] See article by Prof. Ion Berca in *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Dec. 20, 1957.

Fulfillment of the practice teaching requirements is certified on an "individual academic card of pedagogical practice."

Higher Education Teaching Staff

The Rumanian system of higher education provides, in terms of rank, for the following teaching positions: professor (*profesor*), lecturer (*conferenţiar*), research chief or reader (*şef de lucrări sau lector*), assistant (*asistent*), laboratory chief or council head (*şef de laborator sau şef de cabinet*), chief tutor (*preparator principal*), and tutor (*preparator*).[38]

As in American institutions of higher education, the teaching staff is grouped into departments depending upon the particular field of specialization. The head of the department is appointed by the Ministry of Education on the recommendation of the institution's administrative authorities.[39]

Teaching positions may be filled by either degree-holding individuals who are eligible for tenure (*titular*) or by substitutes (*suplinitori*). Positions held by substitutes are considered vacant; when they are filled with *titulars* the substitutes are relieved. *Titulars*, in turn, are either provisional, i.e., probationary (*titular provizoriu*), or permanent (*titular definitiv*) in terms of their appointment, depending upon what type of diploma they have received from the Higher Commission on Diplomas.[40]

With the exception of the positions of professor, lecturer, and tutor, vacant positions in the institutions of higher learning are filled either through competitive examinations or by promotion. These three positions may be filled only through competitive examinations.

The Ministry of Education must approve the holding of competitive examinations, proposals for which are submitted by the rector (chancellor) of the particular institution. Made in an official Party publication, the announcement of the competitive examination for filling a vacancy contains various details on the position, such as rank, department, fields of specialization, documents to be submitted, and place and date of the examination. Within one month from the publication of the announcement, those interested must submit to the rector of the respective institution an application together with the required documents. These documents are checked by a "commission on verification" (*comisie de verificare*) appointed for that purpose by the rector. Only those candidates may take the competitive examinations whose papers have been found by the commission to be in order.

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[38] See Decision No. 1057 regarding approval of the regulation on filling teaching positions in higher education in Ministerul Justiţiei, *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1 Iulie–31 August 1958.* Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1958. p. 142–55.

[39] In the case of an institution of double subordination, the appointment is made by the sponsoring economic ministry with the concurrence of the Ministry of Education.

[40] For details concerning the Higher Commission on Diplomas, see p. 155ff.

The examinations proper are prepared and conducted by a "Commission on Competitive Examinations" (*Comisie de concurs*). The members of this commission are appointed by the rector and confirmed by the Ministry of Education. They are composed of a president and two members (professors or lecturers) from the same institution or from another institution of higher learning, as recommended by the "Scientific Council" (*Consiliul ştiinţific*) of the particular institution. The commission's president may be the rector himself, one of the prorectors, or the dean of the respective faculty (school). The commission's recommendations are evaluated by the "Scientific Council" of the institution of higher learning in secret ballot, by a simple majority, with at least two-thirds of the members present. Within 15 days of the council meeting, the rector submits the results of the competitive examinations for approval to the Ministry of Education. The material which he submits includes (a) a review of the examinations, (b) the report of the commission on competitive examinations, (c) the minutes of the meeting of the "Scientific Council," (d) the successful candidate's file, (e) a report on the candidate as based on the documents in the file.[41]

Qualifications and requirements for entering the competitions vary with the positions. For a professorship, for example, a candidate must have a doctorate or the rank of professor, and for a lecturership, a doctorate, the degree of "candidate in science", or the rank of lecturer. The competitive examinations for these positions may also be taken by engineers and other specialists who hold State examination diplomas, as well as by those with recognized writings to their credit.

In the case of positions which may also be filled through promotions, the procedure again is rather complicated. The recommendation for promotion is made by the department head, reporting in detail on the instructor's professional, scientific, and civic activities. The report is discussed and evaluated in the Faculty (School) Council (*Consiliul facultăţii*) and if approved is submitted by the dean, together with the minutes of the meeting, to the rector. If the rector also approves the promotion, the material pertaining to the instructor is forwarded to the Ministry of Education for final action.

In addition to their teaching load and political assignments, faculty members are also expected to be actively engaged in scientific research connected with their fields of specialization. The character and purpose of these research activities were explained by Cristofor

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[41] In the case of institutions of double subordination a copy of all the material is submitted also to the sponsoring economic ministry.

Simionescu, rector of the Polytechnical Institute of Iaşi, in the following words:

> Led and guided by the Party, using the experience of Soviet higher education in this field, the scientific research conducted in universities and institutes, having the Marxist-Leninist concept of nature and society as its theoretical base, is oriented towards the solution of the problems posed by production.[42]

Papers prepared on the basis of such research activities are usually read at the scientific sessions (*sesiuni ştiinţifice*) which have been held annually since 1955.

In spite of the increased pressures exerted by Party and governmental authorities towards tying these faculty research activities to the practical problems posed by industry and agriculture, it appears that results are far from satisfactory. Many faculty members seem to conduct research divorced from the basic requirement of its practical applicability and, hoping to be promoted on the basis of the number of research papers printed, often sacrifice quality for quantity.[43]

The retirement age for faculty members is 65 for men and 60 for women. When requested by an institution of higher learning, the Ministry of Education in exceptional cases will permit men to continue teaching until the age of 70. Retired faculty members who have distinguished themselves in the course of their career may function either as "consulting professor" (*profesor consultant*) or as "consulting lecturer" (*conferenţiar consultant*). In this capacity they may serve as:

- ★counsellor for aspirature candidates
- ★thesis adviser to doctoral or science candidates
- ★adviser to the High Commission on Diplomas
- ★reviewer of textbooks and scientific works
- ★member of a department collective
- ★member of the scientific council of a faculty (school) or an institution of higher learning.[44]

The Institute of Pedagogical Sciences

Founded in Bucharest during 1951, the Institute of Pedagogical Sciences (*Institutul de ştiinţe pedagogice*) is Rumania's main educational research center. With branch offices in Iaşi and Cluj, the Institute was established to:

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[42] Cristofor Simionescu. "Activitatea ştiinţifică a cadrelor didactice în strînsă legătură cu cerinţele producţiei" (The Scientific Activity of the Teaching Cadres in Tight Relationship With the Requirements of Production). *Scînteia*, Bucharest, May 24, 1962. p. 4.

[43] *Ibid.* See also G. Manolescu *and* V. Nicolau, "Despre munca de cercetare ştiinţifică a cadrelor didactice în institutele de învăţămînt superior" (On the Scientific Research Work of the Teaching Cadres in the Institutions of Higher Learning). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXIX:7:56–64, July 1959.

[44] See Decree No. 521, July 27, 1962, in Ministerul Justiţiei. *Colecţie de legi, decrete, hotărîri şi dispoziţii, 1962, I Iulie–31 August.*" Bucharest: Editura ştiinţifică, 1962. p. 8-9.

★study the fundamental problems confronting education in the People's Republic of Rumania

★study, generalize, and popularize the positive experience of schools and teaching cadres

★use the experiences of Soviet schools and pedagogical science

★study the progressive pedagogical ideas of the past and the history of Rumanian education.[45]

During 1952–55 the Institute was concerned primarily with the implementation in Rumania of Soviet educational experience and with the advancement of Marxist-Leninist concepts of education. New curricula and syllabi were issued under the Institute's auspices, taking into consideration the requirements of Communist education and training in "socialist patriotism."[46]

In July 1955 the Ministry of Education took over responsibility for preparing curricula and syllabi, relieving the Institute to devote its attention to pedagogical research proper. During 1955–60 the Institute sponsored a number of pedagogical lectures and scientific sessions. By 1960 it had published 81 books, pamphlets, or articles on various methodological difficulties encountered in "the problem of education in the spirit of Communist morality," the problem of tying education to life and production, and other educational problems. Much of the Institute's work is published in its own organ, *Revista de Pedagogie.*

Although no longer directly responsible for preparing curricula and syllabi, the Institute cooperates with the Ministry of Education in such matters by doing research on aptitude determination and testing. A proposed syllabus is first tested in experimental schools under the supervision of the Institute, which has five secondary experimental schools under its immediate jurisdiction—two in rural areas and three in cities.[47] Since 1961–62 the Institute has devoted considerable attention to studying the problems involved in the gradual transition from the 7-year to the 8-year schools of general education.

In cooperation with the institutes concerned with improvement of the teaching cadres and with the education sections of the regional people's councils, the Institute also organizes "pedagogical lectures (*lecturi pedagogice*), held every 2 years on a national and regional level. The subject matter for this series is determined by a central commission composed of the section chiefs of the Institute, a delegate from each "institute for improving teaching cadres," and a delegate from the Ministry of Education. The research papers selected for reading at the lecture series are often taken into consideration during the process of evaluating their authors when they are up for promotion.[48]

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[45] "Zece ani de activitate a Institutului de ştiinţe pedagogice" (Ten Years of Activities of the Institute of Pedagogical Sciences), *Revista de Pedagogie,* Bucharest, XI:1:8–16, January 1962.

[46] *Ibid.*

[47] UNESCO. *Preparation of General Secondary School Curricula* (Publication No. 216). Geneva: International Bureau of Education, 1960. p. 269-70.

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[48] *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, XI:6:127-28, June 1962.

Chapter VIII

Organizations for Children, Youths, and Adults

THE EDUCATIONAL-POLITICAL PROCESS in Rumania is pursued not only in formal institutions of learning, but also under the auspices of the various mass organizations. The activity of these organizations is of great importance in the strategy of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party for transforming the country along "socialist" lines.

Communist educators emphasize that learning must go hand in hand with "the struggle against the influences of bourgeois ideology and with the raising of the new generation in the spirit of Marxism-Leninism."[1] Education along these lines seeks to inculcate in youth what the doctrinaires refer to as "socialist patriotism" and "proletarian internationalism." The former, they emphasize, involves an appreciation of the materialist basis of the new economic system and the political foundation of the "people's democratic regime." It finds expression through inculcating youth with a "conscious discipline and reverence for the State and Party," and a "progressive attitude towards labor and communal property." On the other hand, "proletarian internationalism" is considered as manifesting itself in youth's solidarity with the workers of other lands, especially those of the Soviet Union and the people's democracies." The intensified drive for deepening the attachment to "proletarian internationalism" since the early 1950's has been attributed to the "increasingly vocal activities of cosmopolites, revisionists, and other enemies of Marxism-Leninism."[2]

Political education is a multilateral process involving not only indoctrination proper but to a considerable extent also learning under conditions of organized extracurricular activities. These are planned and carried out under the aegis of the Pioneer organization, the Union of Working (Communist) Youth (*Uniunea Tineretului Muncitor*—UTM for short), the student associations, and various trade union and party units. Also important in this context are the so-called "people's universities" and the organizations for physical education and sports.

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[1] See articles by Ion Dragu in *Revista de Pedagogie*. Bucharest, VI:4:3-18, April 1957, and VI:10:58-70, October 1957.

[2] *Ibid.*

The Pioneers' Organization

The Rumanian Pioneers' organization was established in April 1949 in accordance with the general directives of the Communist Party dated December 1948. Guided and controlled by the UTM units, the Pioneers' membership is composed of children between the ages of 9 and 14.[3] According to Alexandru Draghici, leading figure of the Party, "The Pioneers must acquire all those wonderful traits that characterize Communist morale. Pioneers must grow and develop in such a way that, at the proper age, they can enter the ranks of the Union of Working Youth, then those of the Party, to work and struggle for the exalted cause of Communism."[4]

Structure

The structural setup of the Pioneers' organization follows the pyramidal form characteristic of Communist mass organizations. The smallest entity, the "unit," can be established in schools or children's homes having at least three Pioneers. Ever broadening towards the base of the pyramid, the next two entities, or levels, are "detachments" and "groups." All units, detachments, and groups form an urban or district (*raional*) complex. Then all the urban and district complexes of a given region make up a "Regional Pioneers' Organization." Finally, all the regional organizations in the country constitute the nationwide "R.P.R. Pioneers' Communist Organization."

The units are under the guidance of "Superior Instructors" nominated by the UTM from its own ablest members. These instructors work personally with the school directors and teachers and are members of the school's "Pedagogic Council" and the unit's "leadership collective" (leadership committee).[5]

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[3] Membership in the Pioneers' organization has grown from 130,000 in 1950 and 700,000 in 1953 to over a million in 1960. Alexandre Cretzianu. *Captive Rumania. A Decade of Soviet Rule.* New York: Praeger, 1956. p. 219; and Report by Virgil Trofin to the Third Congress of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party in *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Aug. 19, 1960. (The first UTM Congress was held in March 1949 and the second in June 1956.)

[4] Alexandre Cretzianu, *op, cit.*, p. 220.

[5] In 1958 the "Decisions of the Fifth Plenum of the Central Committee of the UTM" caused minor changes to be made in the Pioneers' organizational setup. These changes called for reducing the number of "Superior Instructors," granting new distinction to Pioneers, and establishing a "Pioneer Unit's Council" in each school. *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Sept. 26, 1958.

Membership

According to Pioneer regulations,[6] all children in the specified age group are eligible for membership, provided they "are industrious at learning, obey school discipline, behave decently in family and public, and participate actively in communal work."

The pupil who wished to become a Pioneer applies verbally to the leader of the "Pioneer detachment" of his class. His admission or rejection is decided by open vote of the assembly of the particular detachment. Once admitted, he must make the following declaration of allegiance:

> I, young Pioneer of the Rumanian People's Republic, promise before my comrades to obey Lenin's orders, to be a steadfast fighter for the cause of the Workers' Class Party, for the victory of socialism and Communism. I promise to live and learn so that I may become a worthy citizen of our beloved Fatherland.

The new Pioneer is then given a red tie (scarf for girls) and a Pioneer badge. Bearing the inscription *Tot înainte* (Always Forward), the badge is worn on the left side of the breast. The uniform is a white shirt (blouse for girls) with dark-color trousers (skirt for girls).

Objectives

The primary objectives of the Pioneers' organization are defined thus:

> The Pioneers' organization is the principal help to the school and family for the moral education of children, for developing in Pioneers those characteristics that distinguish the new Man: courage, honesty, humility, deep and active love of our Fatherland, of the Rumanian Workers' Party, of the Great Soviet Union. The Pioneers' organization educates its members in the spirit of the class struggle, in a spirit of implacable hatred of the enemies of the people, and in the spirit of proletarian internationalism and friendship among peoples.

A great concern of the State, apparently, in this matter of "moral education of children" is the "negative influence of the family," i.e., the lingering national and religious sentiments. More and more "specialists" seem to suggest that the schools also guide families in raising their children according to the principles of Communist education.[7] They point out that although it is easy to verify the general knowledge acquired by the children in school, it is very difficult to ascertain their political and moral sentiments, and particularly their "patriotic" sentiments. The parents are reminded that they must lead an exemplary "socialist" life, not only at work but also at home. Cases are cited in the Party organ periodically to "reveal" that some parents manifest a "socialist" behavior at work and at Party meetings, but assume a "conservative" and "retrogressive" attitude in family life.[8]

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[6] For text of the Regulations of the Pioneers' organization as approved by the Central Committee of the UTM, see *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Oct. 5, 1954.

[7] See article by A. Turovţev in *Făclia*, Cluj, Apr. 3, 1957.

This "opportunistic" behavior of the parents, it is argued, interferes with the school's objective of developing in the children an atheistic-scientific concept of life and nature for the battle against mysticism and obscurantism. Cases are pointed out where in spite of atheist training "pupils continued to be possessed by prejudices and superstitions in the explanation of certain phenomena."[9]

Extracurricular Activities

The ideological molding of the Pioneers is achieved partly through a number of extracurricular activities, carefully screened not only from the educational but also from the political point of view. Theoretically integrated with and balancing the more rigid school curriculum, the educational activities of the "Pioneer homes" are conducted in various "art," "scientific," or "technical" circles. These circles of "Young Technicians" or "Young Naturalists," as they are called, offer an opportunity to the children to develop their initiative and feeling for independent work. The programs introduce them to the use of a variety of simple tools and materials and develop in them a feeling of respect for manual labor. The art circles engage in such programmed activities as choral singing, folk dancing, and folk music. The children's horizon is broadened and their curiosity stimulated by organized visits to scientific and technological exhibits, documentary film showings, programmed listening to broadcasts, and above all by organized hobby groups (airplane modeling, ship building, needlework, handicraft, etc.). Also important in this respect are the carefully selected stories and articles appearing in the official Pioneer publications. Among these papers the most popular are *Scînteia Pionierului*, *Cravata Roşie*, *Luminiţa*, *Pogonici*, and *Licurici*.[10]

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[8] Ilie Stanciu. "Unele probleme actuale de educaţie" (Some Current Problems of Education). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXVII:9:83-92, September 1957.

[9] Andrei Dancsuly. "Unele probleme ale educaţiei comuniste a elevilor în lumina Directivelor celui de-al III-lea congres al P.M.R." (Some Problems of the Communist Education of Pupils in the Light of the Directives of the Third Congress of the Rumanian Workers' Party). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, IX:5:3:18, September-October 1960. "Educaţia comunistă a elevilor" (The Communist Education of Pupils). *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, Jan. 19, 1962. For further details on the aim and functions of the Pioneer Organizations see Institutul de Ştiinţe Pedagogice, *Rolul organizaţiei de pionieri şi educaţia patriotică a elevilor* (The Role of the Pioneers' Organization and the Patriotic Education of Pupils). Bucharest: Editura de stat didactică şi pedagogică, 1957. 267 p.

[10] The English titles for these five publications are, in order, the following: The Pioneer's Spark, The Red Tie, The Little Light, The Plowboys, and The Glow Worms.

The children are also mobilized to participate in various agricultural activities and are "shown" that only through science and technology, and not through prayers or worship of God, can the crops be made more abundant. The "negative elements of religion" are also "demonstrated" by stories about the "Scopes Trial" in the United States and its antiscientific implications, by the fact that the American Ku Klux Klan has the cross as its emblem and that the Hungarian "counter-revolution" was led by Cardinal Mindszenty, and by other "proofs."[11]

Pioneer "Homes" and "Palaces"

For carrying on many of the Pioneer extracurricular activities the party, the UTM, and various trade union organizations have established "homes" and "palaces." One such place is the sumptuous former royal palace of Cotroceni in Bucharest.

Although the large Pioneer homes and palaces are staffed by full-time salaried personnel, the circles and hobby groups are guided and supervised by teachers and UTM volunteers. In cities where institutions of higher learning are located, students are also called upon to volunteer for such work. Preference is given to volunteers with skills, ability to work with their hands and integrate theoretical with practical work, and enthusiasm for communal work. This last attribute is particularly important in view of the dual aim of the circles. This aim is not only to supplement the knowledge which the children acquire in school and to stimulate in them an interest in technical and practical labor, but also to inculcate in them a feeling of respect for communal property, an unqualified attachment to the new social and political order, an atheistic concept of life and nature.

Besides these homes and palaces, the Pioneers have a meeting place in many of the schools of general education, a special room set aside to serve as the "Pioneers' Room." This room usually holds the school-wall "newspaper," edited by the Pioneers, and like the other school rooms is decorated with flags, slogans, and portraits of leading Communists.

In spite of the Party's strenuous efforts to bring about a close relationship between schools and Pioneer homes, the connection is to a large extent only nominal. There is evidence that teachers frequently are passive about their responsibilities for political education and that at best they leave the task of ideological indoctrination to Party and UTM officials or to social studies teachers. Moreover, many school officials, including principals, do not know where the Pioneer Homes are located and never participate in their activities.[12]

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[11] Virgil Caraba. "Contribuţia organizaţiei de pionieri la educaţia ateist-ştiinţifică a copiilor" (Contribution of the Pioneers' Organization to the Atheist-Scientific Education of Children). *Revista de Pedagogie*, Bucharest, X:1:43–57, January 1961.

The Union of Working Youth (UTM)

Ultimate responsibility for implementing the Party program among youths—especially students in the institutions of higher learning—rests with the Union of Working Youth (*Uniunea Tineretului Muncitor*), popularly known by the official abbreviation UTM.[13] This organization was established in March 1949 in accordance with the Communist Party decision of December 1948. Nominally, it succeeded the *Tineretul Progresist* ((Progressive Youth), which in 1945 had replaced the *Uniunea Tineretului Comunist* (Union of Communist Youth.[14]

The UTM organization is modeled closely after the pyramidical organization of the Party. At the bottom of the pyramid are the primary organizations in educational and State institutions, factories, collective and State farms, and other establishments. Each primary organization has at least three members. When its membership reaches one hundred, the primary organization is broken down into subgroups: for example, the UTM Faculty (School) groups within an institution of higher learning. The primary organization operates under the auspices of the urban or district (*raional*) UTM committee, which in turn is responsible to the regional UTM committee. At the apex of the pyramid is the Central Committee of the UTM (headed by its first secretary which in turn operates under the overall guidance and leadership of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party.

Guided by Party directives, the UTM units in schools and institutions supervise the activities of the other mass organizations, such as the Pioneers, the student associations, and the sport groups;[15] and are directly responsible for the political and ideological indoctrination of the students. Organizing "debates" within the framework of the social and natural sciences, the UTM units aim to propagate the materialist concept of life and to "combat the idealist theories and bourgeois ideologies." To assure the "correct orientation" of students in the domestic and foreign policies of the "socialist States," and to demonstrate the "superiority of socialism over capitalism," the UTM units periodically organize "political orientation" courses to be attended by all members. They are also active in helping school authorities with measures to ensure diligent study and to mobilize students for "voluntary" labor in the "building of socialism."[16]

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[12] *Făclia*, Cluj, Apr. 27, 1957.

[13] See *Hotărîrea Biroului Politic al C.C. al P.M.R. cu privire la unele măsuri de îmbunătăţire a muncii politice-educative în rîndul studenţilor, 22 Iunie 1956* (Decision of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party Concerning Certain Measures for Improving the Political-Educational Work Among the Students, June 22, 1956). Bucharest: Editura de stat pentru literatura politică, 1956. 29 p.

[14] Founded in 1924, the Union of Communist Youth was very unsuccessful during the first two decades of its existence.

[15] For details on UTM activities in physical education and sports see p. 190ff.

To complement their political and indoctrinational activities, however, the UTM units are also expected to provide leadership in physical education, sports, military or paramilitary training, and social-cultural programs. These activities, which are intended to contribute to the cultivation of many-sided interests—essential, it is believed, in developing the new "socialist" man—are among the most popular of the UTM undertakings, since they are relatively removed from the political realm. Although far from being apolitical, the UTM-sponsored literary, dramatic, dancing, and singing groups provide some relief from the extensive indoctrination to which youth is exposed.

The UTM organizations in the institutions of higher learning do not seem to live up to the Party's expectations. The daily press abounds in articles critical of their activities among the students. Writing in *Scînteia Tineretului*[17]—official organ of the UTM—a second-year philology student at Alexandru Ion Cuza University of Iaşi, stated that the UTM activities had not reached the levels required—that collecting dues and urging students to subscribe to Communist Party literature in fact constituted the organization's primary activities. The leaders, he said, had no organizational spirit, lacked authority, and seemed to have accepted their positions as a tiresome necessity. Most authors seem to agree that the UTM activities are generally monotonous and fail to fulfill their primary responsibility regarding the political and "moral" education of youth.

The membership of the UTM increased extensively during the late 1950's. On August 1, 1960, according to reports, it totaled 1,915,000, a 60-percent increase over the 1955 level. Also according to reports, it encompasses over 40 percent of all young people between the ages of 14 and 28; and its membership is 31.7 percent workers, 9.91 percent students, and 42.57 percent persons engaged in farming. Girls, it is said, constitute 31 percent of the membership.[18] As to the extent to which the membership is composed of idealists reflecting genuine conviction in their service to the Party and of opportunists merely paying an outward lip service, it is all but impossible to determine.

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[16] For details on the UTM's role in mobilizing Rumanian youths for "voluntary" labor and in urging them to engage in "socialist competitions," see article by Virgil Trofin, First Secretary of the Central Committee of the UTM, in *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXIX:10:25–38, October 1959.

[17] Issue of May 31, 1957, article by I. Miloiu.

[18] Virgil Trofin, *op. cit.*

Student Associations

The most important immediate organs for assuring the loyalty of students to the State are the student associations (*asociațiile studențești*). The Communists recognized at an early date the need to channel the traditionally nationalistic tendencies of the Rumanian student body along more "constructive" lines. At first the students were organized in a Democratic University Front supporting politically the Communist-controlled Bloc of Democratic Parties (*Blocul partidelor democratice*). Following the establishment of the "people's democratic regime," the existing student associations were amalgamated in April 1948 into the U.A.S.R., or *Uniunea asociațiilor studenților din R.P.R.* (Union of Student Associations of the Rumanian People's Republic). As a result of the reorganization of the Communist youth movement in March 1949, control over the student associations was gradually taken over by the UTM. It appears, however, that the State's expectations for transforming the students into "enlightened elements in the service of socialism" were not fulfilled, for after a brief but intense campaign in the official press the associations were again reorganized in 1956.

A National Conference of Student Delegates, held in Bucharest on August 18–19—in line with the "Decision of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party" of June 1956[19]—entrusted an organizational committee with the task of implementing the Party program. By March 1957, when the first National Conference of the Student Associations was held in Bucharest, this committee could report[20] that 78 student associations had been established in the then 47 institutions of higher learning and that the membership totaled 50,000 students, or 88 percent of the enrollment in these institutions.

The student associations of the various institutions operate under the guidance of the National Association, which in turn gets its instructions from the Party. The National Association is composed of a Central Council (*Consiliul U.A.S.R.*), a Commission of Censors (*Comisia de cenzori*), and an Executive Committee (*Comitetul executiv*). Composed of 19 members, the Executive Committee has a president, secretary, treasurer, and two vice-presidents. Carefully delineated, the primary functions and responsibilities of the student associations are to:

★operate under the guidance of the Communist Party and the immediate control of the UTM

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[19] See footnote 13 of this chapter.

[20] For text of the report see *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Mar. 10, 1957.

★fight for the elimination of bourgeois ideology and the strengthening of students' attachment to the Party and the working class through the teaching of Marxism-Leninism

★see that students take the positions assigned them by the Government at the end of their studies

★encourage students to study

★direct the activities of the "scientific circles"

★help organize and supervise the students' practical work in production

★stimulate students in acquiring a general academic background in addition to specialization in a narrow field

★organize and direct student sport activities

★inculcate in the students a feeling of responsibility towards communal property

★mobilize the students to join the associations.

Aside from being given the general aims listed above, the student associations are expected to be active in supporting the internal and foreign policies of the State and in strengthening relations with their counterparts in the other "socialist countries."

According to their official organ, *Viaţa Studenţească* (Student Life), the associations are further entrusted with the task of intensifying their work, thus:

> To educate the students, to aid them in thorough mastery of Party policy and Marxist-Leninist doctrine; to train the mass of student youth in active participation in the political and social life of the country; to develop in the students socialist patriotism, optimism, enthusiasm, and love for whatever is progressive, and a fervent desire to be as useful as possible to socialist construction, the cause of peace, and social progress.
>
> Of exceptional importance in the political and professional molding of the young intellectuals are mastery of Marxist-Leninist science, knowledge, and mastery of the policy of the Rumanian Workers' Party.[21]

In implementing their program, the student associations have taken over from the trade unions all matters pertaining to handling welfare funds and have assumed jurisdiction over the activities of AVSAP,[22] ARLUS,[23] and the *Ştiinţa* (Science) sport association. The official organ of the student associations, *Viaţa Studenţească*, mentioned above, was launched in 1956.[24]

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[21] *Viaţa Studenţească*, Bucharest, Nov. 10, 1961. p. 2

[22] See p. 134.

[23] *Ibid.*

[24] The central organ of the Rumanian students at the time of their organization in the Front was *Studentul Român* (The Rumanian Student). After the first student union was established in 1948, the journal was replaced by the *Revista Elevilor* (Pupils' Review). Aside from the central organ, most institutions of higher learning have their own journals: *Universitate*, edited by the students of the C. I. Parhon University of Bucharest; *Politehnica*, of the Polytechnical Institute of Bucharest; *Agronomia*, of the Nicolae Bălcescu Agronomic Institute of Bucharest—to name a few. Most of these journals are only mimeographed, however, and on the whole are of a very low level. For example, see article by I. Sava *and* I. Deleanu in *Scînteia Tineretului*, Feb. 22, 1957.

The Second National Conference of the Student Associations was held in Bucharest during February 1959. It dealt at length with the need to achieve greater cohesion between institutions of higher learning and industrial and agricultural enterprises and to raise the students' political and ideological level. Many speakers also stressed the need to continue the fight against nationalism, chauvinism, and national isolation, thus setting the stage for the later unification of the Rumanian V. Babeş and the Hungarian Bolyai Universities of Cluj.[25]

The Third National Conference of the Student Associations met at the Grigore Preoteasa Students' Home of Culture of Bucharest during February 1961. In his report to the Council of the Union of Student Associations, the president, Cornel Burtică, credited the Association's attainments to the guidance it had received from the Party and the UTM. Like his predecessor, however, he also emphasized the shortcomings of the "cultural-educational" work among students, which continued to plague the Association. He said:

> The weaknesses of the educational work are reflected in the negative manifestations of some students. Although the large majority have a progressive attitude, there are still students with a backward mentality who do not give necessary attention to their ideological and cultural training, who have a limited outlook, and who are cut off from the major preoccupations of our student body. One still encounters cases of cosmopolitanism, hooliganism, immorality, and imitation of certain bad customs concerning clothing, dancing, and social behavior—manifestations of bourgeois morality and ideology.[26]

A basic reason for this state of affairs, according to the same report, was that the organizational work of the student associations was characterized by formalism and often limited to collecting dues and writing statistical reviews.

To assure the correct interpretation and ideological acceptability of subject matter and to focus greater attention on the immediate problems of industry and agriculture, the Association encouraged students to join "scientific circles" (*cercuri ştiinţifice*). Their membership increased from 3,500 in 1950 to around 12,500 in 1956–58, or 24.5 percent of the students.[27] During 1959–60 16,000 students were members of over 800 "scientific circles."[28]

Despite the circles' numerical increase, their general scientific level and effectiveness are admittedly low. Students apparently are not very enthusiastic about joining so many organizations and associations, to say nothing of actively participating in them.[29]

Since 1957 a prorector in each institution of higher learning has been assigned the task of supervising the overall political-ideological programs among the students and the activities of the social science instructors.[30]

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[25] For example, see text of speech by Lajos Takács in *Scînteia*, Feb. 22, 1959. For details on the amalgamation of the two universities, see chapter VI, p. 116ff.

[26] *Viaţa Studenţească*, Bucharest, Feb. 10, 1961.

Trade Unions

Like other mass organizations, the trade unions[31] have well-defined responsibilities in the "educational" process. A primary responsibility is to see that the decisions of the Government and the Party are carried out in the educational institutions.

The educational trade unions have undergone an organizational change. During their meeting of June 10, 1957 in Bucharest, the Central Committees of the Trade Unions of the workers in education, arts and culture, printing, publishing, and book distribution, decided to merge, forming a single union to be called the "Trade Union of the Workers in Education and Culture" (*Sindicatul muncitorilor în învăţămînt şi cultură*). This union is led by a presidium of 15 (1 president, 3 vice presidents, 1 secretary, and 10 other members).

All members have responsibilities not unlike those of members of the UTM. In addition to their academic tasks they must be concerned with the political indoctrination of pupils, both in and out of school.

The overall functions of the trade unions in the schools were summarized by the vice president of the Central Committee of the Trade Union of Workers in Education when speaking at a meeting of the Union in Craiova on May 15, 1957.[32] She stated that most unionized teachers combine instruction with Communist indoctrination by emphasizing the achievements of the people's democracy and by encouraging the pupils' appreciation both of Rumania and of the Soviet Union. The Union, she said, expects its members in the field of education to do the following:

> . . . to intensify efforts for giving the lessons a varied educational content, and to protect their ideological purity; to intensify the concern with the organization of activities outside the class, and of vacation activities, so that these activities will be instructive and suited to the pupils' age; to strengthen relations with the pupils' parents by developing a thorough pedagogical propaganda program within their ranks, so that the support received by the school from the parents in the Communist education of the young citizens of the country will become increasingly stronger; to strengthen the struggle for raising the political and ideological level of the workers, for cementing the pedagogical collectives of the schools in which the activities are carried out, and for mobi-

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[27] Report of Ilie Iliescu to the Second National Conference of the Student Associations. *Scinteia*, Bucharest, Feb. 20, 1960

[28] *Viaţa Studenţească*, Bucharest, op. cit.

[29] According to the report submitted to the Third National Conference of the Student Associations, 113 of the 2,200 papers prepared under the auspices of the "scientific circles" in 1959-60 found application in industry or agriculture. *Ibid.*

[30] See articles 23-25 of Decision 1003 /1957.

[31] The membership of all trade unions in Rumania was reported as 2,800,000 in 1960. Report of Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej to the Third Congress of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party. *Scinteia*, Bucharest, June 21, 1960.

[32] *Gazeta Învăţămîntului*, Bucharest, May 24, 1957.

> lizing all the teaching cadres in activities for the children's patriotic Communist education, which the Party and the Government have entrusted to the schools.

Union members must also support Pioneer and UTM organization activities and see that more and more children of "proletarian" origin are admitted to the institutions of higher learning.[33]

Physical Education and Sport Organizations

The educational value of organized competitive sports has been widely recognized in the socialist world. Rumania devotes considerable attention to developing physical education and popularizing sports. Forming an integral part of Communist education for molding the new "socialist man," the Rumanian programs receive substantial support from the Party and Government. Since the establishment of the people's republic, these programs have undergone three major changes: in June 1949, January 1957, and July 1957.

The Party's first directives relating to the systematic organization of sports and their utilization for political purposes were laid down in June 1949.[34] Before that date its influence was felt through the People's Sport Organization (*Organizația sportului popular*), formed soon after the September 1944 ending of Rumania's alliance with the Axis Powers. Conceived as a "new type of sports movement," the People's Sport Organization's announced primary aim was "to fight for the elimination of the reactionary fascist elements from the field of sports and for the education of the athletes in the spirit of proletarian morality loyal to the regime." The program collapsed, however, suffering from a series of shortcomings. It failed to receive mass support, and above all the Party organizations were unsuccessful in raising the ideological, political, and cultural level of the participants.

In an attempt to alleviate the situation, the 1949 Party Decision provided for the establishment of a Physical Education and Sports Committee (*Comitet pentru cultură fizică şi sport*) to function under the auspices of the Council of Ministers. The Committee was entrusted with the following responsibilities:

★realization of the Party's and Government's policy in the domain of physical education and sports

★establishment of the norms and measures required for the development of physical education

★guiding and controlling of the activity of all sport organizations and of physical education in the educational institutions

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[33] *Ibid*, Apr. 20 and May 3, 1957.

[34] See "Decision of the Political Bureau of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party" to this effect in *Rezoluții şi hotărîri ale Comitetului Central al Partidului Muncitoresc Român, op cit.*

★organization of sports on a mass basis

★adoption of new methods relating to the teaching and practicing of physical education along Soviet lines

★organization, guiding, and controlling of sport activities and the recruitment of coaches, instructors, trainers, and leading athletes on the basis of their ideological background

★stimulation and raising of new athletes

★supervision over the sport fields and equipment

★guiding of the press in the area of sports

★strengthening of sport relations with other countries.[35]

In February 1950 the Committee decreed that physical education and sports would have to be practiced from that time on within the framework of sport collectives or circles of the schools and of the various trade unions and agricultural collectives. Two months later the Council of Ministers accepted the Committee's proposals to establish a State sports organization to be called "Ready for Work and for the Defense of the Rumanian People's Republic" (*Gata pentru muncă şi apărarea Republicii Populare Romîne*). This organization was expected to mold its members in "the true spirit of patriotism and proletarian morality and unwavering love for the Soviet Union . . . "[36]

Grouped into three classes—(1) *Be Ready for Work and Defense,* (2) *Ready for Work and Defense, Grade I,* and (3) *Ready for Work and Defense, Grade II*—the members had to be at least 15 years of age and were expected to pass a number of examinations and tests before being promoted to the higher levels. These examinations and tests were conducted by the sport collectives or enterprises, the schools, and the military establishments. Members received insignia corresponding to the particular group in which they were classified. Their obligations were numerous, among them one to "raise continuously their ideological and political level, to be active participants in the sports movement, to participate in mass competitions, and to be an example in discipline."

Following the establishment of the sports organization, the schools were required to reconstruct their physical education program in order to coordinate it with that of the organization. They also had to include a number of hours of physical education and sports per week in the curriculum of each grade,[37] whereas previously they had treated these activities as extracurricular.

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[35] See Decision No. 27 of Jan. 31, 1950 in *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, II:10:87–88, Feb. 2, 1950.

[36] For the regulation concerned with establishing the organization, see *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 38, Apr. 27, 1950, p. 478-81.

[37] See Decision No. 1146 in *Buletinul Oficial*, Bucharest, No. 107, Oct. 30, 1951, p. 1080-81. Grades 1 and 2 and 7–11 of the schools of general education require 2 hours of physical education per week; grades 3–6, 3 hours. See tables 7 and 8.

In spite of its strenuous efforts, however, the Physical Education and Sports Committee failed to live up to the expectations of the State. The schools were either reluctant or simply did not have the necessary facilities to raise sports and athletics to the level demanded by the higher authorities.

On January 17, 1957 the Ministry of Education reminded school officials that physical education must contribute to the "well-rounded education of youth . . . in the service of socialist construction."[38] The Ministry's order emphasized the responsibilities of the Committee for Physical Education and Sports in this regard, the overall importance of physical education in the curriculum, and a number of other points.

Six months later in July 1957, the physical education and sports program was again revised. Criticizing the existing setup, the party and the Government issued a new decision.[39] They attributed the shortcomings of the program primarily to the organizational system—specifically to duplication in the guiding organs. The leading Party and Government organizations, such as the trade unions, the UTM, the people's councils, the Ministry of Education, and the Ministry of Health and Social Welfare (*Ministerul sănătății și prevederilor sociale*), were the main targets of the accusation that physical education had been neglected.

The program was reorganized through establishing a Union of Physical Education and Sports (*Uniunea de cultură fizică și sport*).[40] Guided by the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party, this Union functions through regional, district (*raional*), and urban councils and "sports circles and collectives"[41] established in the schools. It is responsible for implementing the general objectives of the sports movement, organizing internal and international mass competitions, and handling allocated funds. It is also entrusted with developing the sports movement in rural areas, guiding and directing all sport clubs and collectives, and directing the activities of such associations as the General Association of Sport Hunters and Fishermen (*Asociația generală a vînătorilor și pescarilor sportivi*).

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[38] *Gazeta Învățămîntului*, Bucharest, Jan. 25, 1957. The order provided for the reorganization of year-end sport competitions and "complex study excursions." See Decision No. 59 of the Council of Ministers, in Ministerul Justiției, *Colecție de legi, decrete, hotărîri și dispoziții, 1957, 1 Ianuarie–28 Februarie*. Bucharest: Editura de stat, 1957, p. 114–16.

[39] For details see *Făclia*, Cluj, July 3, 1957.

[40] According to data revealed at the Union's National Conference in February 1962, it then had 2,700,000 members in approximately 10,500 local associations formed within the framework of enterprises, institutions, villages, and schools. About 800 of the local groups were in secondary and vocational schools. Sports activities under the auspices of the Union are augmented by hiking and camping under sponsorship of the Association of Popular Tourism (*Asociația Turismul Popular*), which in turn is guided by the UTM. (For further details on the Union and its 1962 conference, see *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Feb. 24–26, 1962.)

[41] Sports circles and collectives are guided by physical education teachers and the UTM.

The Union has a number of journals which help it in implementing the Party program. Of these the most popular are *Sportul Popular* (Popular Sports), *Új Sport* (New Sports—printed in Hungarian), *Cultura Fizică şi Sport* (Physical Education and Sports), and *Stadion* (Stadium). The Party organizations are responsible for guiding all the Union's activities and for entrusting the leadership of the sport groups to "reliable" leaders. The UTM's primary task is the mobilization of youth into the movement and their "moral-political education."[42] The people's councils in turn are responsible for assuring that the material things necessary for the practice of sports are available.

Physical education consequently forms an integral part of the Communist education of youth which, according to Marx, combines physical culture with productive labor and instruction "not only as a means for increasing social production but as the only way of producing fully developed beings.[43]

Party Schools

Before World War II, the Rumanian Communist Party was one of the weakest in eastern Europe. Founded in May 1921, it never had more than 1,000 members before 1944. Following the September 1944 armistice and again following the inauguration of the Groza Government in March 1945, however, its membership increased considerably. Composed then largely of opportunists and rightist elements who were openly encouraged to join, the Party also included a number of idealists who earnestly believed that a new era of social economic progress was dawning in Rumania. Despite its increased membership, though, it lacked a sufficient number of "multilaterally trained activists" to carry out the impending program of "socialization."[44]

The need for additional party leaders led to the establishment in October 1948 of the A. A. Jdanov Central School of Lecturers (*Şcoala centrală de lectori "A. A. Jdanov"*). The school offered an accelerated 6-month program of courses designed to train personnel badly needed by the Party: Party ideologists, Party school instructors, press editors, and social science instructors for the institutions of higher learning. In July 1949 the school was reorganized and transformed into the A. A. Jdanov Higher Institute of Social Sciences (*Şcoala superioară de ştiinţe sociale "A. A. Jdanov"*).[45] It began operating during the 1949–50 academic year with an estimated enrollment of 200. The program was extended from 6 months to 2 years, with courses in two different sections, propaganda and press.

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[42] See articles by Ilie Gheorghe *and* Vlad Dogaru in *Scînteia Tineretului*, Bucharest, Nov. 12 and 13, 1957.

[43] Maurice J. Shore. *Soviet Education. Its Psychology and Philosophy.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1947. p. 52.

[44] The number of Party members and candidates on June 1, 1960 was 834,600, an increase of 239,000 or 40 percent, over the 1955 level. Of these, 148,000 were candidates. The percentage of workers in the membership rose to 51.05. Agriculture was represented by 280,000 and the intelligentsia by 93,000. Women constituted only 17 percent of the membership. Figures were revealed by Gh. Gheorghiu-Dej in his report to the Third Congress of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party. *Scînteia*, Bucharest, June 21, 1960.

The original plans for this school called for a yearly freshmen enrollment of 100, to be recruited from "Party activists with high ideological and cultural background." For reasons not publicly stated, however, the school was dissolved during the 1950's.

Leading party activists and agitators are now trained solely at the Ştefan Gheorghiu Higher Party School (*Şcoala superioară de partid, Ştefan Gheorghiu*), founded in March 1945. Functioning under the immediate control of the Central Committee of the Communist Party, the school offers a 3-year course for Party members who are expected to occupy responsible positions in local, regional, or central Party organizations. It also has an "aspirature section" for journalists and propagandists and offers correspondence courses for Party and State activists. In 1960 the 3-year courses were attended by 400 students, and the aspirature and correspondence sections by 500 and 550, respectively.[46] The curriculum consists of courses in Marxism-Leninism, history of the Communist (Bolshevik) Party of the USSR, history of the Rumanian Workers' (Communist) Party, dialectical and historical materialism, Party organization, and economic planning and management of "socialist enterprises."

In addition to this "Party university," various other educational entities also conduct ideological training for Party members: "evening universities of Marxism-Leninism" (*universităţi serale de marxism-leninism*), "evening Party schools" (*şcoli serale de partid*), "Party circles and courses" (*cercuri şi cursuri de partid*), "permanent seminars for propagandists" (*seminarii permanente ale propagandiştilor*), and "study seminars" (*seminarii de studiere*).[47]

The evening universities of Marxism-Leninism and the evening Party schools both require 2 academic years to complete their courses, which begin on September 1 and end on June 30. These courses are the following:

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[45] For the July 1949 Decision of the Party relating to the school's reorganization see *Rezoluţii şi hotărîri ale Comitetului Central al Partidului Muncitoresc Romîn 1948-50* (Resolutions and Decisions of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party, 1948–1950). Bucharest: Editura partidului muncitoresc romîn, 1951. p. 124–25.

[46] *Scînteia*, Mar. 23, 1960. For more details on Party education see article entitled "Învăţămîntul de partid—factor esenţial în educaţia marxist-leninistă a comuniştilor" (Party Education—An Essential Factor in the Marxist-Leninist Education of Communists), by Vasile Muşat. *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXVIII:10:28-42, October 1958.

[47] *Resoluţii şi hotărîri ale Comitetului Central al Partidului Muncitoresc Romîn*, 1951-1953 (Resolutions and Decisions of the Rumanian Workers' Party, 1951–1953). Bucharest: Editura pentru literatura politică, 1954. p. 437-48.

Evening universities

- History of the Rumanian People's Republic
- Foreign policy of the USSR and the people's democracies
- Contemporary international relations
- History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union[48]
- Dialectical and historical materialism[48]
- Political economy[48]
- Russian[48]

Evening Party schools

- History of the Rumanian Workers' Party
- Political economy
- Economic and political map of the world and the Rumanian People's Republic
- History of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union[48]
- Economic problems of industrial enterprises[49]
- Problems of Party and State work[48]
- Russian[48]

The Party circles and courses also require 2 academic years, which begin on October 15 and end on June 30 in the cities, and May 30 in the villages. Meeting twice a month, they are organized under the auspices of the district (*raional*) and urban Party committees, and their courses cover the history of the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, political economy, and dialectical and historical materialism.

Operating under the auspices of the urban Party committees in the cities and the district (*raional*) party committees in the villages, the permanent seminars for propagandists meet for 4 hours once a week in the former and for 2 days a month in the latter.

The study seminars devote themselves to the fundamental classics of Marxism-Leninism and are open to "graduates" of the A. A. Jdanov and Ştefan Gheorghiu Party schools, Communist intellectuals, and social science instructors.

By March 1960[50] the A. A. Jdanov and Ştefan Gheorghiu Party schools had graduated 6,300 "students," and by June 1960[5] the various courses offered by the Party had been attended by 190,000 activists.

A major role in the political education of the masses is assigned to the "people's universities."

The "People's Universities"

Founded early in 1956 under the general direction of the Party, the "people's universities" operate under the auspices of the Society for the Propagation of Science and Culture (*Societatea pentru răspîndirea ştiinţei şi culturii*), the trade union and UTM units, and the educational sections of the people's councils. Having no educational qualifications for enrollment, they aim at "the enlargement of the political-ideological, scientific-technical, and cultural horizons of the workers."[52] They are envisioned as contributing to the "spreading of the ideas of Marxism-Leninism, to the understanding by the masses of Party policy and international affairs, and to the popularization of the successes of the socialist States headed by the Soviet Union."[53]

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[48] Examination given at end of academic year.

[49] In urban schools. The corresponding course in rural schools is problems of agrarian economics.

[50] *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Mar. 23, 1960.

[51] *Ibid*, June 22, 1960. (See article by Dumitru Cristescu.)

The "people's universities" are each headed by a director who is assisted by a "study director" (*director de studii*). The curriculum consists of the regular propaganda courses on Marxism-Leninism and histories of the various "workers' parties." These courses are supplemented by a number of technical ones envisioned as raising the workers' output and the general productivity of labor. As such, most of these "universities" are organized within the framework of large industrial plants. The number of "people's universities" increased from 26 in 1956–57 to 96 in 1957–58, when they had an enrollment of 9,000. Fifty of the 96 operated within the various plants: 14 of them had Hungarian, and 1 had German, as the language of instruction.[54]

Since 1958–59 the "people's universities" have been classified under four types: worker, public, youth, and village. Their program consists of two obligatory courses, "scientific socialism" and the "natural sciences", and two electives geared to the general background and level of the auditors. The courses are given once or twice a week. The first three types have an 8-month study course beginning October 15. The fourth, or village type, on the other hand, has a study course of only 4 or 5 months, beginning November 1.[55] During the 1958–59 academic year more than 200 "people's universities" were in operation.[56] By 1961 their number had increased to 357 and their enrollment to 37,000.[57]

Available evidence seems to suggest that the progress of these "universities" is quantitative rather than qualitative. Most of the courses are poor and ill prepared and the attendance is rather haphazard.[58]

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[52] D. Mihalache *and* Gh. Homată. "Universităţile populare şi educarea socialistă a oamenilor muncii" (The People's Universities and the Socialist Education of the Workers). *Lupta de Clasă*, Bucharest, XXXIX:11:59–69, November 1959.

[53] *Ibid.*

[54] *Scînteia*, Bucharest, Feb. 28, 1958.

[55] *Ibid*, Feb. 25, 1958.

[56] D. Mihalache *and* Gh. Homată, *op. cit.*

[57] *Agerpres Information Bulletin*, Bucharest, No. 20, Nov. 5, 1961, p. 11.

[58] D. Mihalache *and* Gh. Homată, *op. cit.*

Chapter IX

Evaluation and Conclusions

THE IDEAL OF EDUCATION, as understood in the United States and the free world as a whole, embraces the desirability of bringing to full fruition the potentialities of the individual. It is a concept based upon the realization that a nation's greatness is dependent primarily upon the excellence of the individuals composing it. The concern for human excellence is a reflection of the ideal of the overriding importance of human dignity, deeply rooted in the Judaeo-Christian tradition and the ethics of democracy.

The educational system introduced in the Rumanian People's Republic after World War II negates to a large extent these fundamental principles. Modeled after its Soviet prototype, it aims to produce what the Communists call "the new socialist man." This individual is envisioned as subordinating his personal interests to the interests of the people as determined by the Communist Party. Education in this respect aims not only to equip youth with the knowledge and skills needed by a planned economy, but also to raise an ideologically and politically reliable populace responsive to Party and Government requirements. Education is thus conceived as a weapon of paramount importance in the planned transformation of Rumanian society along "socialist" lines. It closely follows Lenin's pronouncement on the character and far-reaching objective of the schools. According to Lenin, "the school should become a weapon of the proletarian dictatorship, not only leading in Communist principles, but also serving as a guiding ideal, administrative, and educational influence of the proletariat on semiproletarian and nonproletarian classes of the toiling masses. Thus, the school should lead in the interest of suppression of the exploiters and the realization of the Communist society."[1]

In the planned transformation of Rumanian society along "socialist" lines, priority was given to a mass indoctrination program and to the development of the national economy. In this, however, the Rumanian Communists were initially hampered by the high-illiteracy rate inherited from the past and a shortage of skilled labor. The general backwardness, lack of education, and lack of knowledge as to how to use modern technical tools began to be felt with the inauguration of the ambitious economic plans that followed the nationalization and collectivization drives of the post-1948 period.

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[1] Maurice Shore. *Soviet Education: Its Psychology and Philosophy.* New York: Philosophical Library, 1947. p. 141.

Dedicated to eliminating these deficiencies, the indoctrination program was geared to a vast literacy campaign coupled with an effective utilization of the Party-controlled mass media of communication. In the schools, it involved an overhauling of the curricula, syllabi, and programs along Marxist-Leninist principles and a close adherence to the Party line, as assured by the watchfulness of various student, youth, and faculty mass organizations.

To satisfy the ever-increasing demands for skilled or semiskilled industrial and agricultural workers, the schools have gradually been changed along polytechnical lines. This entailed an extension of the schooling period, a relative deemphasis of the humanities and purely academic subjects, and a commensurate increase in the importance attached to acquiring a trade or skill. Although the basic principles underlying polytechnical education as developed by Marx require a combination of "productive labor with instruction and physical culture, not merely as a means for increasing social production, but as the only way for producing *fully developed*[2] beings," the economy's practical requirements for specific skills seem to have overridden the original Marxist concept of what a well-rounded education entails. The functional and utilitarian nature of education in Rumania illustrates the dynamic interaction between the demands of ideology and the concrete requirements of a country in transition from a predominantly agricultural to an increasingly industrial society.

Educational planning is geared to overall economic planning. Determined jointly by the State Planning Committee and the various educational authorities under the general guidance of the Communist Party, targets are established for the number of students to be admitted for training in specific skills and professions. Although individual talents are evaluated and considered, personal career preferences are subordinated to the State's overriding needs as determined by the Party. Within the assigned field, however, there is room for individual technical excellence.

Rumanian education has made considerable progress since the end of World War II, both in the number of schools and the size of enrollments. Particularly noteworthy is the increased school attendance of village youth as well as the effort to make the 7- (8-) year school universal, free, and compulsory. Although higher technical education has received increasing attention, graduates of the 7- (8-) year schools are being channeled into vocational-technical and agricultural schools. By 1958-59, the number of pupils in the first year of those schools had surpassed the number in the eighth grade of the schools of general education.

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[2] Italics supplied.

More difficult to assess are the success and failure of the Rumanian people's democratic State in its attempt to bring about the political and ideological indoctrination of youth. The new educational programs constitute incontestably the most comprehensive and sustained effort in the country's history to reach distant social goals through applying modern mass communication techniques to the molding of minds and human behavior. The emphasis on ideological indoctrination through using Marxist-Leninist principles in the teaching of all subjects in all grades is coupled with a drive to train the country's youth in the "new Communist morality," of socialist patriotism and proletarian internationalism.

The countereffects of church and family notwithstanding, the many years of propaganda and Communist education have presumably left a considerable imprint upon the minds of the postwar generation of school children born and raised within the framework of the people's democratic system. Some difficulties seem to persist, however, in the case of students in the institutions of higher learning. Although they present no organized opposition, their continued, though gradually weakening, disdain for the indoctrination programs organized by the Party, the UASR, and the UTM is expressed by apathy and indifference. Moreover, many students have admittedly shown a disturbing readiness to accept Western—particularly American—behavior patterns reflected in their clothing and their liking for jazz. Denounced as "hooligans" or "cosmopolitans," they have other pro-Western sentiments, such as an admiration of Western technology and science and an underestimation (according to the Communists) of the achievements of the USSR and of the socialist camp in general.

In the past few years, however—especially since the Hungarian uprising of 1956—the Rumanian People's Republic has intensified the drive for the ideological indoctrination of youth. The outcome of this drive will of course depend on many factors. Barring unforeseen developments, however, it is safe to assume that the resisting influences of church and family, generally isolated as they are from the free world, will continue to weaken. On the other hand, the eradication of illiteracy, the lingering remnant of nationalism, the natural desire for freedom and personal advancement, and the continuous increase in the number of educated (though indoctrinated) people may lead to a development contrary to the one envisioned by the Communists. Such a possibility has been demonstrated by sporadic episodes in many parts of the Communist world during the post-Stalin era.

Appendixes

A. Textbooks Used in the 11-Year School of General Education, Rumanian People's Republic
B. Glossary of Rumanian Terms Appearing in This Publication
C. Tables Showing Changes in Rumanian Education Between 1959–60 and 1961–62
D. Bibliography

Appendix A

Textbooks Used in the 11-Year School of General Education, Rumanian People's Republic[1]

1st Grade

Rumanian Language and Reader

Giurgea, Maria, Clara Maru, *and* Maria Buştină. *Abecedar* (Primer). 1960, 88 p.

Limba romînă. Manual pentru clasa I (Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade I). 1960, 108 p.

Arithmetic

Teodorescu, Constanţa, *and* Constanţa Iliescu. *Aritmetica. Manual pentru clasa I* (Arithmetic. Textbook for Grade I). 1960, 152 p.

2d Grade

Arithmetic

Ganea, Alexandrina, *and* Andrei Bălan. *Aritmetica. Manual pentru clasc a II–a* (Arithmetic. Textbook for Grade II). 1960, 224 p.

3d Grade

Rumanian Language

Limba romînă. Manual pentru clasa a III–a (Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade III). 1960, 264 p.

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[1] These textbooks, unless otherwise noted, were published in Bucharest by the Didactical and Pedagogical State Publishing House (*Editura de stat didactică şi pedagogică*). They may be examined at the U.S. Office of Education's Educational Materials Laboratory in Washington, D.C.

Arithmetic

Nicolau, Livia, *and* Dumitru Theodosiu. *Aritmetica. Manual pentru clasa a III–a* (Arithmetic. Textbook for Grade III). 1960, 295 p.

4th Grade

Grammar, Composition, and Reader

Citire. Manual pentru clasa a IV–a (Reader. Textbook for Grade IV). 1960, 168 p.

Stănescu, Teodora, *and* Rodica Sepeţeanu. *Gramatica şi compunerea. Manual pentru clasa a IV–a* (Grammar and Composition. Textbook for Grade IV). 1960, 126 p.

Arithmetic

Vlahuţă-Buga, El., *and* Traian Belcescu. *Aritmetica. Manual pentru clasa a IV–a* (Arithmetic. Textbook for Grade IV). 1960, 236 p.

Natural Sciences

Şoigan, Maria. *Ştiinţele naturii. Manual pentru clasa a IV–a* (Natural Sciences. Textbook for Grade IV). 1960, 152 p.

5th Grade

Rumanian Language and Grammar

Dărmănescu, Elena, *and* Gheorghe Ghiţă. *Limba romînă. Manual pentru clasa a V–a* (Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade V). 1960, 152 p.

Miciora, Chiosa, Clara Ionescu, *and* Georgeta Maria Eliza. *Gramatica limbii romîne. Manual pentru clasa a V–a* (Grammar of the Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade V). 1960, 181 p.

Foreign Languages

Popescu, Margareta, *and* Dumitru Grama. *Limba rusă. Manual pentru clasa a V–a* (Russian Language. Textbook for Grade V). 1960, 202 p.

History

NUŢU, CONSTANTIN. *Istoria antică şi medie. Manual pentru clasa a V–a* (History of Antiquity and of the Middle Ages. Textbook for Grade V). 1960, *rev. ed.*, 224 p.

Geography

MIHĂILESCU, VINTILĂ, ELENA PAPATĂNASE, *and* GHEORGHE MARINEANU. *Geografia fizică şi geografia continentelor sudice. Manual pentru clasa a V–a* (Physical Geography and the Geography of the Southern Continents. Textbook for Grade V). 1960, 175 p.

Botany

SANIELEVICI, EMIL, *and* ALEXANDRU DABIJA. *Botanica. Manual pentru clasa a V–a. Şcoli de la oraşe* (Botany. Textbook for Grade V. City Schools). 1960, 192 p.

Practical Classes

CONSTANTINESCU, V., *and* I. CÎRSTEA. *Lucrări practice de tîmplărie. Clasa a V–a* (Practical Work in Carpentry. Grade V). 1960, 220 p.

STĂNCULESCU, PETRE, *and* ION CONSTANTINESCU. *Cunoştinţe agricole.* Manual *pentru clasa a V–a.* (Agricultural Science. Textbook for Grade V). 1960, 214 p.

6th Grade

Rumanian Language and Grammar

DĂRMĂNESCU, EL., *and* GH. GHIŢĂ. *Limba romînă. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 168 p.

DRAGOMIRESCU, G. N., *and* ŞTEFANIA GOLOPENŢIA. *Gramatica limbii romîne. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Grammar of the Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 239 p.

Foreign Languages

DUDNICOV, LIUBOV. *Limba rusă. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Russian Language. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 164 p.

Arithmetic and Geometry

Hollinger, A. *Geometria. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Geometry. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 202 p.

Rusu, Eugen. *Aritmetica. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Arithmetic. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 207 p.

Physics

Angelescu, I., *and* N. Mazilu (*rev.* by Virgil Atanasiu). *Fizica. Mecanica, căldura. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Physics. Mechanics and Heat. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 230 p.

Zoology

Sanielevici, E., Lucia Popovici, *and* Alex. Dabija. *Zoologie. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Zoology. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 208 p.

Geography

Papacostea-Pajură, C. *Geografie pentru clasa a VI–a* (Geography for Grade VI). 1960, 223 p.

History

Vianu, Alexandru. *Istoria modernă şi contemporană. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Modern and Contemporary History. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 260 p.

Music

Meitert, C., *and* D. D. Stancu. *Manual de muzică pentru clasa a VI–a* (Music Textbook for Grade VI). 1959, 94 p.

Practical Classes

Prelucrarea manuală a metalelor. Lucrări practice de atelier pentru clasa a VI–a şi clasa a VII–a (The Manual Processing of Metals. Practical Shop Work for Grades VI and VII). 1960, 244 p.

Stănculescu, Petre, *and* Ion Angelescu. *Cunoştinţe agricole. Manual pentru clasa a VI–a* (Agricultural Science. Textbook for Grade VI). 1960, 200 p.

7th Grade

Rumanian Language and Grammar

Beldescu, G., *and* M. Popescu. *Limba romînă. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a* (Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 208 p.

Golopenţia, Ştefania, *and* Grigore Brîncuş. *Gramatica limbii romîne. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a* (Grammar of the Rumanian Language. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 343 p.

Foreign Languages

Stepaneţ, Z., *and* I. Butmi. *Limba rusă. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a* (Russian Language. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 231 p.

Algebra

Hollinger, A. *Algebra. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a* (Algebra. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 215 p.

Physics

Fizica. Acustică, optică, electricitate. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a (Physics. Acoustics, Optics, Electricity. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 216 p.

Chemistry

Tomescu, Dumitru. *Chimie. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a* (Chemistry. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 278 p.

Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene

Sanielevici, Emil, *and* Sonia Marinov. *Anatomia, fiziologia şi igiena omului. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a* (The Anatomy, Physiology, and Hygiene of Man. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 136 p.

Civics

Niciu, Marţian *and* Teodor Tanco. *Manual de constituţie pentru clasa a VII–a* (Constitution Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 173 p.

Practical Classes

Chiriac, Gh., I. Milițiu, F. Lupescu *and* M. Iacob. *Cunoştinţe agricole. Manual pentru clasa a VII–a* (Elements of Agriculture. Textbook for Grade VII). 1960, 180 p.

8th Grade

Latin

Guţu, Gh. *Limba latină. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Latin. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 128 p.

Modern Foreign Languages

Pamfil, Liliana (Popovici), *and* Edith Rappaport-Axelrad. *Limba engleză. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (English Language. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 128 p.

Saraş, Marcel *and* Ion Brăescu. *Limba franceză. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (French Language. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 144 p.

Savin, Emilia, *and* Basilius Abager. *Limba germană. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (German Language. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1959, 255 p.

Algebra and Geometry

Coşniţă, Cezar, *and* Gh. D. Simionescu. *Geometrie. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Geometry. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 271 p.

Dumitrescu, Gh. *Algebra. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Algebra. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 440 p.

Physics

Hangea, Nicolae, *and* Nicolae Stănescu. *Fizica. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Physics. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 287 p.

Chemistry

Rabega, Constantin, *and* Iosif Rişavi. *Chimie. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Chemistry. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 152 p.

Botany

TRETIU, TRAIAN, ION CIOBANU, *and* EUGEN GHIŞA. *Botanica. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Botany. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 216 p.

History

DRAGOMIRESCU, ION *and* NICOLAE LASCU. *Istoria antică. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Ancient History. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 244 p.

Geography

GIURCĂNEANU, CL., *and* I. ROŞCA. *Geografia fizică. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Physical Geography. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 211 p.

Drawing

ZĂNESCU, A., *and* N. NICOLESCU. *Manual de desen liniar şi culegere de exerciţii pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Textbook of Linear Drawing and Collection of Exercises for Grade VIII). 1960, 174 p.

Music

MOTORA-IONESCU, A., *and* I. ŞERFEZI. *Muzica. Manual pentru clasa a VIII–a* (Music. Textbook for Grade VIII). 1960, 119 p.

Practical Classes

MUCICĂ, T., *and* GH. GĂLĂŢEANU. *Cunoştinţe despre maşini cu aplicaţii practice. (Scule şi maşini unelte)* (Understanding of Machines With Practical Application. Tools and Machine Equipment). 1960, 155 p.

9th Grade

Rumanian Literature

BOROIANU, C. *Literatura romînă. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Rumanian Literature. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 304 p.

Latin

Vasilescu, T., *and* N. Barbu. *Limba latină. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Latin. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 159 p.

Modern Foreign Languages

Florian, Teodora, *and* Alexandru Marinescu. *Limba franceză. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (French Language. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 237 p.

Popescu, Margareta, *and* Liubov Dudnicov. *Limba rusă. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Russian Language. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 230 p.

Algebra and Geometry

Dumitrescu, Gh., *Algebra. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Algebra. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 379 p.

Simionescu, Gh. D., *and* Cezar Coşniţă. *Geometria. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Geometry. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 328 p.

Physics

Stănescu, N., *and* A. Negulescu. *Fizica. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Physics. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 263 p.

Chemistry

Predeţeanu, Constantin, *and* Polixenia Stănescu. *Chimia. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Chemistry. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 203 p.

Zoology

Bogoescu, Constantin, Emil Sanielevici, *and* Coralia Niţescu–Vernescu. *Zoologia. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Zoology. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 223 p.

History

Pall, Francisc, *and* Camil Mureşan. *Istoria evului mediu. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (History of the Middle Ages. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 326 p.

Geography

Hilt, Virgil, Cristache Stan, Constantin Herbst, Vladimir Onofrei, *and* Petre Bîrgăuanu. *Geografie. Manual revizuit pentru clasa a IX–a* (Geography. Revised Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 274 p.

Music

Motora–Ionescu, A., *and* I. Şerfezi. *Manual de muzică pentru clasa a IX–a* (Music Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 155 p.

Practical Classes

Ghiţă, I., M. Rădoi, *and* G. Sprînceană. *Cunoştinţe despre maşini cu aplicaţii practice. Maşini unelte. Manual pentru clasa a IX–a* (Understanding of Machines With Practical Application. Machine Equipment. Textbook for Grade IX). 1960, 138 p.

10th Grade

Rumanian Literature

Vitner, Ion, *and* Ov. S. Crohmălniceanu. *Literatura romînă. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Rumanian Literature. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 344 p.

Latin

Vasilescu, Toma I. *Limba latină. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Latin. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 174 p.

Modern Foreign Languages

Popescu, Margareta, *and* Zenovia Stepaneţ. *Limba rusă. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Russian Language. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 206 p.

Limba engleză. Manual pentru clasa a X–a (English Language. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 192 p.

Limba franceză. Manual pentru clasa a X–a (French Language. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 286 p.

Limba germană. Manual pentru clasa a X–a (German Language. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 368 p.

Algebra, Trigonometry, and Geometry

Coşniţă, Cezar. *Geometria în spaţiu. Manual pentru clasa a X–a reală* (Solid Geometry. Textbook for Grade X, *Réal* Section). 1960, 271 p.

Crişan, Iacob, *and* Alexandru Pop. *Algebra. Manual pentru clasa a X–a reală* (Algebra. Textbook for Grade X, *Réal* Section). 1960, 311 p.

Dumitrescu, Gh. *Geometrie in spaţiu. Manual pentru clasa a X–a umanistică* (Solid Geometry. Textbook for Grade X, Humanities Section). 1960, 160 p.

Popescu, Gheorghe, *and* Alfred Schüszler. *Trigonometrie. Manual pentru clasa a X–a umanistică* (Trigonometry. Textbook for Grade X, Humanities Section). 1960, 155 p.

Sacter, O. *Trigonometrie. Manual pentru clasa a X–a reală* (Trigonometry. Textbook for Grade X, *Réal* Section). 1960, 302 p.

Physics

Stănescu, N., A. Negulescu, *and* N. Hangea. *Fizica. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Physics. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 312 p.

Chemistry

Buznea, Margareta, *and* Eugenia Dumitrescu. *Chimie. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Chemistry. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 208 p.

Anatomy and Physiology

Iagnov, Z., *and* E. Papadopol. *Anatomia şi fiziologia omului. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (The Anatomy and Physiology of Man. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 203 p.

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Almaş, Dumitru, *and* Alexandru Vianu. *Istoria modernă şi contemporană. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Modern and Contemporary History. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 343 p.

Political Economy (Marxism-Leninism)

Golfiţescu, Constantin, Norbert Goldhamer, *and* Aurel Negucioiu. *Curs elementar de marxism–leninism. Economie politică. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Elementary Course in Marxism-Leninism. Political Economy. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 304 p.

Practical Classes

HUSEA, V., *and* T. PAVELESCU. *Cunoştinţe despre maşini cu aplicaţii practice. Automobilul. Manual pentru clasa a X–a* (Understanding of Machines With Practical Application. The Automobile. Textbook for Grade X). 1960, 119 p.

11th Grade

Rumanian Literature

GAFIŢA, M., D. MICU, AL. PIRU, *and* G. G. URSU. *Literatura romînă contemporană (Perioada 1920–1944). Lucrarea este elaborată pentru uzul clasei a XI–a a şcolilor medii de cultură generală şi pentru şcolile pedagogice* (Rumanian Contemporary Literature (The 1920–1944 Period). Prepared for Use in Grade XI of the Secondary Schools of General Education and in the Teacher-Training Schools). 1960, 166 p.

Latin

VASILESCU, TOMA I., *and* C. DRĂGULESCU. *Limba latină. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (Latin. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 131 p.

Modern Foreign Languages

ABAGER, BASILIUS, EMILIA SAVIN, *and* LEONI BRODOWSKI. *Limba germană. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (German Language. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 289 p.

LIPATTI, VALENTIN, *and* ION BRĂESCU. *Limba franceză pentru clasa a XI–a* (French Language for Grade XI). 1960, 232 p.

PAMFIL, LILIANA, *and* EDITH RAPPAPORT-AXELRAD. *Limba engleză. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (English Language. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 219 p.

POPESCU, MARGARETA, *and* ZENOVIA STEPANEŢ. *Limba rusă. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (Russian Language. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 195 p.

Mathematics and Geometry

DINCULESCU, NICOLAE, *and* EUGEN RADU. *Elemente de analiză matematică. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a reală* (Elements of Mathematical Analysis. Textbook for Grade XI, *Réal* Section). 1960, 304 p.

IONESCU, D. V. *Matematici superioare. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a umanistică* (Higher Mathematics. Textbook for Grade XI, Humanities Section). 1960, 276 p.

Simionescu, Gh. D. *Geometria analitică. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a reală* (Analytical Geometry. Textbook for Grade XI, *Réal* Section). 1960, 255 p.

Physics

Vieroşanu, Gheorghe. *Fizica. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (Physics. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 390 p.

Chemistry

Buznea, Margareta, *and* Eugenia Dumitrescu. *Chimia organică. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (Organic Chemistry. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 230 p.

Geology

Băncilă, Ion. *Geologia. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (Geology. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 131 p.

Astronomy

Vorontsov-Velyaminov, B. A. *Astronomie. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a reală* (Astronomy. Textbook for Grade XI, *Réal* Section). 1960, 196 p.

Darwinism

Bazele Darwinismului. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a (Foundations of Darwinism. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 184 p.

Geography

Tufescu, Victor, Claudiu Giurcăneanu, *and* Aurel Banu. *Geografia R.P.R. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (Geography of the Rumanian People's Republic. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 304 p.

Practical Classes

Marin, Ene. *Cunoştinţe despre maşini cu aplicaţii practice. Maşini şi aparate electrice. Manual pentru clasa a XI–a* (Understanding Machines With Practical Application. Electric Machines and Equipment. Textbook for Grade XI). 1960, 219 p.

Appendix B

Glossary of Rumanian Terms Appearing in This Publication

Rumanian	English
A	
Academia Republicii Populare Romîne	Academy of the Rumanian People's Republic
Ajutor de maiştri	Assistant master craftsman
ARLUS (*Asociaţia romînă pentru strîngerea legăturilor cu Uniunea Sovietică*)	Rumanian Association for Strengthening Relations With the Soviet Union
Asociaţia generală a vînătorilor şi pescarilor sportivi	General Association of Sport Hunters and Fishermen
Asociaţia ştiinţifică a inginerilor şi tehnicienilor	Scientific Association of Engineers and Technicians
Asociaţia turismul popular	Association of Popular Tourism
Aspirantura	Aspirature
AVSAP (*Asociaţia voluntară pentru sprijinirea apărării patriei*)	Voluntary Association to Support the Defense of the Fatherland
B	
Biroul pentru rezolvarea sesizărilor şi reclamaţiilor	Bureau for Handling Reports and Claims
C	
Cabinet pedagogic	Pedagogical cabinet
Cabinet tehnic	Technical cabinet
Cămină de zi	Day nursery
Candidat în ştiinţă	Candidate in science
Carnet de practică	Practical work notebook
Carnet de studii	Study record book
Catedră	Department
Catedră de practică	Department of Practical Work
Centru de consultaţii	Consultation center
Centru de pregătire	Preparatory center
Cerc de studii	Study circle
Cerc pedagogic	Pedagogical circle

Rumanian	English
Cerc ştiinţific	Scientific circle
Certificat de muncitor calificat	Skilled worker certificate
Certificat de studii	Study certificate
Comisia superioară de diplome	High Commission on Diplomas
Comisie centrală de coordonare a practicii în producţie a studenţilor	Central Coordinating Commission on Students' Practical Work in Production
Comisie de atestare	Attesting commission
Comisie de concurs	Commission on Competitive Examinations
Comisie de coordonare a învăţămîntului profesional	Commission on the Coordination of Vocational Education
Comisie de verificare	Commission on Verification
Comisie metodică	Methods Commission
Comisie pentru practica în producţie	Commission on Practical Work in Production
Comisie pentru realizarea învăţămîntului politehnic	Commission for the Achievement of Polytechnical Education
Comitet pentru cultura fizică şi sport	Committee on Physical Education and Sports
Comitetul de stat al planificarii	State Planning Committee
Comitetul de stat pentru cultură şi artă	State Committee for Culture and Art
Comitetul de stat pentru învăţămîntul superior	State Committee on Higher Education
Comitetul de stat pentru problemele de muncă şi salarii	State Committee on Problems of Labor and Wages
Conducător de activităţi pionereşti	Leader of Pioneer activities
Conducător de cercuri pionereşti	Leader of Pioneer circles
Conferenţiar consultant	Consulting lecturer
Consiliul facultăţii	Faculty (School) Council
Consiliul învăţămîntului de cultură generală	Council for the Schools of General Education
Consiliul învăţămîntului profesional şi tehnic	Council for Vocational and Technical Education
Consiliul învăţămîntului superior	Council for Higher Education
Consiliul metodic ştiinţific	Scientific Methods Council
Consiliul pedagogic	Pedagogical Council
Consiliul ştiinţific	Scientific Council
Consiliul superior al agriculturii	High Council of Agriculture
Consiliul superior al învăţămîntului universitar şi politehnic	Higher Council of University and Polytechnical Education
Consiliul superior al şcolilor	Higher Council of Schools
Corigent	Failing student
Corpul de control al ministrului	Minister's Office of Control

Rumanian	**English**
Curs de îndrumare a cadrelor didactice	Guidance Course for Teacher Cadres
Curs de scurtă durată	Short-term course
D	
Departamentul învăţămîntului superior	Department of Higher Education
Departamentul şcolilor	Department of Schools
Diploma de absolvire	Graduation diploma
Diploma de bacalaureat	*Bacalaureat* (Maturity) diploma
Diploma de stat	State diploma
Direcţia dotării şi aprovizionării	Directorate for Equipment and Supplies
Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului de cultură generală	General Directorate of the Schools of General Education
Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului naţionalităţilor conlocuitoare	General Directorate of Education for the Resident Nationalities
Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului profesional şi tehnic	General Directorate of Vocational and Technical Education
Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului superior	General Directorate of Higher Education
Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului superior, tehnic şi economic	General Directorate of Higher, Technical, and Economic Education
Direcţia generală a învăţămîntului universitar	General Directorate of University Education
Direcţia generală a personalului şi perfecţionării cadrelor din învăţămînt	General Directorate of Personnel and of Teacher Upgrading
Direcţia generală a rezervelor de muncă	General Directorate of Labor Reserves
Direcţia pentru relaţii externe	Directorate for Foreign Relations
Direcţia plan financiar şi contabilitate	Directorate for Financial Planning and Accounting
Direcţia planificării şi organizării muncii	Directorate for Planning and Labor Organization
Direcţia predării ştiinţelor sociale	Directorate for Teaching Social Sciences
Direcţia secretariat-administrativă	Administrative Directorate and Secretariat
Direcţia tehnică de construcţii şi investiţii	General Directorate for Buildings and Investments
E	
Editura de stat didactică şi pedagogică	Didactical and Pedagogical State Publishing House
Examen de calificare	Qualifying examination
Examen de stat	State examination
F	
Facultate	Faculty, School
Facultate muncitorească	Workers' Faculty, School

Rumanian	**English**
G	
Gata pentru muncă şi apărarea Republicii Populare Romîne	Ready for Work and for the Defense of the Rumanian People's Republic
Gimnaziu de băieţi	Boys' Gymnasium
Gimnaziu de fete	Girls' Gymnasium
Gimnaziu mixt	Coeducational Gymnasium
Grădiniţă de copii	Kindergarten
Grădiniţă de copii cu orar normal	Full-time kindergarten
Grădiniţă de copii cu orar redus	Part-time kindergarten
Grădiniţa de copii cu orar săptămînal	Kindergarten with weekly schedules
Grădiniţă de copii sezonieră	Seasonal kindergarten
I	
IMF (*Institut medico-farmaceutic*)	Medical-Pharmaceutical Institute
Inspecţia şcolară	School inspection
Inspector şcolar	School inspector
Institut de ştiinţe economice şi planificare	Institute of Economic Sciences and Planning
Institut medico-farmaceutic, see IMF	
Institut pedagogic	Teacher-training institute
Institut pedagogic de 2 ani	Two-year teacher-training institute
Institut pedagogic de 3 ani	Three-year teacher-training institute
Institut politehnic	Polytechnical institute
Institutul de cultură fizică şi sport	Institute of Physical Culture and Sports
Institutul de maşini şi aparate electrice	Institute of Machines and Electrical Equipment
Institutul de perfecţionare a cadrelor didactice	Institute for Upgrading the Teaching Cadres
Institutul de perfecţionare şi specializare a medicilor şi farmaciştilor	Institute for the Upgrading and Specialization of Physicians and Pharmacists
L	
Lecturi pedagogice	Pedagogical lectures
Liceu	Lyceum
Licenţă	License
M	
Maistru	Master craftsman
Maistru instructor	Master instructor
Metodist	Methodologist, methods expert
Ministerul învăţămîntului	Ministry of Education
Ministerul învăţămîntului public	Ministry of Public Education
Ministerul învăţămîntului şi culturii	Ministry of Education and Culture
Ministerul învăţămîntului superior	Ministry of Higher Education

Rumanian	English
O	
Oficiul de control financiar intern	Office for Internal Financial Control
Oficiul juridic	Legislative Office
Oficiul pentru studii şi documentare	Office for Studies and Documentation
Organizaţia sportului popular	People's Sports Organization
P	
PMR (*Partidul Muncitoresc Romîn*)	Rumanian Workers' Party
Profesor consultant	Consulting Professor
S	
Şcoală agricolă	Agricultural school
Şcoală de calificare pentru adulţi	Training school for adults
Şcoală de calificare de pe lîngă fabrici şi uzine	Training school operating in enterprises and plants
Şcoală de cultură generală	School of general education
Şcoală de ucenici	School for apprentices
Şcoală elementară de 7 (8) ani	7- (8-) year elementary school
Şcoală fără frecvenţă	Correspondence school
Şcoală medie	Secondary school
Şcoală medie de artă	Secondary art school
Şcoală medie de educaţie fizică	Secondary school of physical education
Şcoală medie tehnică	Secondary technical school
Şcoală muncitorească	Worker school
Şcoală naţională de medicină şi farmacie	National School of Medicine and Pharmacy
Şcoală naţională de poduri şi şosele	National School of Bridges and Roads
Şcoală normală	Normal school
Şcoală pedagogică	Teacher-training school
Şcoală pedagogică de educatoare	Teacher-training school for women
Şcoală pedagogică de învăţători	Teacher-training school for men
Şcoală politehnică	Polytechnical school
Şcoală profesională	Vocational school
Şcoală profesională de pe lîngă întreprinderi şi instituţii	Vocational school in enterprises and institutions
Şcoală profesională de ucenici	Vocational school for apprentices
Şcoală profesională pentru tineret	Vocational school for youth
Şcoală secundară	Secondary (or intermediate) school
Şcoală secundară profesională	Vocational secondary school
Şcoală serală	Evening school
Şcoală serală de partid	Evening Party school
Şcoală specială de artă	Special art school
Şcoală tehnică	Technical school

Rumanian	**English**
Şcoală tehnică de maiştri	Technical school for master craftsmen
Şcoală tehnică pentru muncitori calificaţi	Technical school for skilled workers
Şcoală tehnică pentru personal tehnic	Technical school for technical personnel
Secţie reală	Science (*réal*) section
Secţie învăţămînt a sfatului popular	Education section of the people's council
Secţie umanistică	Humanities section
Seminariu teologic	Theological seminary
Serviciul inspecţiei şcolare	School inspection service
Sistemul de stat pentru perfecţionarea cadrelor didactice	State System for Upgrading the Teaching Cadres
Sistemul rezervelor de muncă	System of Labor Reserves
Societatea pentru răspîndirea ştiinţei şi culturii	Society for the Dissemination of Science and Culture
T	
Tineretul progresist	Progressive Youth
U	
UASR (*Uniunea asociaţiilor studenţilor din R.P.R.*)	Union of Student Associations in the Rumanian People's Republic
Uniunea de cultură fizică şi sport	Union of Physical Education and Sports
Uniunea tineretului comunist	Union of Communist Youth
Universitate populară	People's university
Universitate serală de marxism-leninism	Evening University of Marxism-Leninism
UTM (*Uniunea tineretului muncitor*)	Union of Working Youth

Appendix C

Tables Showing Changes in Rumanian Education Between 1959–60 and 1961–62

Table I.—Number of schools, pupils, and teachers in day and evening sessions and correspondence courses, by level: 1959–60 through 1961–62

Item	1959–60	1960–61	1961–62
Preschool Education			
Kindergartens	6,837	7,375	7,637
Pupils	315,998	354,677	375,667
Kindergarten teachers	11,326	12,533	13,142
Schools of General Education			
Schools [1]	15,600	15,638	15,638
Pupils [1]	2,338,447	2,587,861	2,808,239
Teachers [2]	97,907	104,335	111,429
Vocational Education			
Schools	505	519	601
Pupils	102,012	127,224	159,732
Teachers	6,081	7,330	8,594
Teacher Training [3]			
Schools	20	25	32
Pupils	6,764	9,271	9,267
Technical and Master Craftsmen Education			
Schools	268	291	329
Pupils	46,853	56,742	64,158
Teachers	3,355	3,995	4,426
Higher Education			
Faculties	93	131	151
Students, total	63,208	71,989	83,749
Foreign students in Rumania	*953*	*897*	*741*
Teachers [4]	8,141	8,917	10,360

[1] Includes since 1954–55 evening schools for working youth.

[2] Includes teachers of the teacher-training schools.

[3] Includes teacher-training schools functioning as 4-year schools until 1956–57 and as 6-year schools since 1957–58, and 2-year teacher-training institutes established in 1956.

[4] Since 1957–58, tutors, chief tutors, and cabinet and laboratory chiefs have also been considered as teachers.

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1962.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1962. p. 374–75.

Table II.—Number of schools of general education, number of pupils by grade, sex, and urban or rural area; and number of graduates and teachers by grade: 1959–60 through 1961–62

[0 indicates that course did not exist — indicates that source did not show any figures]

Item	1959–60	1960–61	1961–62
SCHOOLS			
4-year	9,957	8,879	8,122
7-year	5,130	6,197	6,940
11-year	513	562	576
PUPILS			
Grades 1–4			
Total	**1,508,401**	**1,516,203**	**1,527,042**
Boys	773,869	779,679	784,532
Girls	734,532	736,524	742,510
Urban:			
Total	**324,801**	**342,367**	**369,201**
Boys	165,783	175,163	188,616
Girls	159,018	167,204	180,585
Rural:			
Total	**1,183,600**	**1,173,836**	**1,157,841**
Boys	608,086	604,516	595,916
Girls	575,514	569,320	561,925
Grades 5–7 [1]			
Day session	*611,907*	*781,042*	*943,659*
Evening session	*5,000*	*20,979*	*42,389*
Correspondence courses	*10,095*	*28,098*	*26,777*
Total	**627,002**	**830,119**	**1,012,825**
Boys	346,751	460,759	556,991
Girls	280,251	369,360	455,834
Urban:			
Total	**204,987**	**248,953**	**289,297**
Boys	108,241	136,538	160,035
Girls	96,746	112,415	129,262
Grades 5–7—Cont'd.[1]			
Rural:			
Total	**422,015**	**581,166**	**723,528**
Boys	238,510	324,221	396,956
Girls	183,505	256,945	326,572
Grades 8–11 [1, 2]			
Day session	*124,390*	*141,161*	*168,197*
Evening session	*54,423*	*69,331*	*100,175*
Correspondence courses[3]	*24,231*	*31,047*	*0*
Total	**203,044**	**241,539**	**268,372**
Boys	110,784	136,602	148,815
Girls	92,260	104,937	119,557
Urban:			
Total	**182,731**	**212,505**	**238,800**
Boys	98,255	118,430	132,398
Girls	84,476	94,075	106,402
Rural:			
Total	**20,313**	**29,034**	**29,572**
Boys	12,529	18,172	16,417
Girls	7,784	10,862	13,155
GRADUATES			
Grade 4	334,998	352,933	—
Grade 7 [1]	145,639	182,216	—
Grade 11 [1, 2]	36,829	46,550	—
TEACHERS			
Grades 1–4	53,033	53,548	52,879
Grades 5–11 [4]	44,874	50,787	58,550

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[1] Beginning with 1954–55, statistics for these grades have included those for evening schools for working youth and the graduates of these schools.

[2] During 1954–55 to 1956–57 the high school system consisted of grades 8–10.

[3] In 1961–62 correspondence courses were discontinued since most students had registered that year in the evening schools.

[4] Includes teachers of teacher-training system.

SOURCE OF DATA: Based on tables 182 and 184 of *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1962.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1962. p. 376–77 and 382–83.

Table III.—Number of schools, pupils, teachers, and graduates in vocational and technical education: 1959–60 through 1961–62

[0 indicates that course did not exist]

[— indicates that source did not show any figures]

Item	1959–60	1960–61	1961–62
VOCATIONAL EDUCATION			
Schools			
Total	**505**	**519**	**601**
Vocational schools for apprentices	305	313	395
Agricultural schools	129	131	114
Trade schools	71	75	77
Trade schools for home economics	0	0	15
Trade school sections for home economics [1]	*58*	*60*	*45*
Pupils			
Total	**102,012**	**127,224**	**159,732**
Vocational schools for apprentices	76,049	89,284	119,070
Agricultural schools	6,410	9,490	5,591
Trade schools	16,700	23,532	28,228
Trade schools and sections for home economics	2,853	4,918	6,843
Teachers			
Total	**6,081**	**7,330**	**8,594**
Vocational schools for apprentices	4,224	4,854	6,092
Agricultural schools	357	483	349
Trade schools	1,344	1,779	1,901
Trade schools and sections for home economics	156	214	252
TECHNICAL EDUCATION			
Schools			
Total	**184**	**205**	**218**
Technical schools for technical personnel	98	112	124
Technical schools for skilled workers	45	48	47
Special art schools	41	45	47
Pupils			
Total	**32,151**	**43,398**	**47,700**
Day session	**30,953**	**42,016**	**46,981**
Evening session	**47**	**52**	**29**
Correspondence courses	**1,151**	**1,130**	**690**
Technical schools for technical personnel	15,093	23,324	26,085
Day session	*13,942*	*21,994*	*25,395*
Correspondence courses	*1,151*	*1,330*	*690*
Technical schools for skilled workers [2]	4,750	5,544	4,411
Special art schools	12,308	14,530	17,204
Day session	*12,261*	*14,478*	*17,175*
Evening session	*47*	*52*	*29*
Teachers			
Total	**2,733**	**3,162**	**3,510**
Technical schools for technical personnel	1,288	1,688	1,807
Technical schools for skilled workers	408	392	331
Special art schools	1,037	1,082	1,372
TECHNICAL EDUCATION FOR MASTER CRAFTSMEN			
Schools	84	86	111
Pupils	14,702	13,344	16,458
Day session	*7,112*	*8,852*	*12,669*
Correspondence courses	*6,744*	*3,877*	*3,212*
Graduates	3,335	3,355	—

[1] Not included in the total number of schools.

[2] All pupils are in day session.

SOURCE OF DATA: Based on tables 186, 191, and 192 of *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1962.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1962. p. 386–87, 394.

Table IV.—Number of faculties, students, and graduates in higher education, by field: 1959–60 through 1961–62

	Faculties (Schools)			Students [1]						Graduates [2]	
	1959–60	1960–61	1961–62	Total			Day session			1959–60	1960–61
				1959–60	1960–61	1961–62	1959–60	1960–61	1961–62		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Total	**93**	**131**	**151**	**63, 208**	**71, 989**	**83, 749**	**46, 003**	**56, 409**	**68, 338**	**10, 896**	**10, 296**
Mining	2	2	2	707	919	1,213	488	729	1,072	129	134
Petroleum	4	4	4	1,218	1,582	1,669	956	1,309	1,476	191	192
Electric power and electro-technology [3]	4	5	5	2,027	3,528	4,650	1,394	2,601	3,737	433	419
Metallurgy and machine building	8	8	9	3,971	5,574	6,781	2,812	4,011	5,250	727	700
Industrial chemistry	3	3	3	1,653	2,184	2,550	1,307	1,748	2,120	304	308
Lumber industry [4]	1	1	1	331	484	621	221	358	523	80	39
Light industry	1	1	1	437	468	530	311	365	440	100	66
Food industry	1	1	1	666	813	989	500	693	862	92	95
Transport and telecommunications [5]	1	1	1	1,395	1,075	936	911	670	621	182	165
Architecture and constructions	8	8	8	4,394	5,563	6,253	3,015	4,067	4,949	664	733
Agriculture	8	8	8	6,698	6,889	7,431	5,628	5,714	6,547	1,324	1,022
Veterinary medicine	1	1	2	713	733	861	713	733	861	128	123
Forestry	1	1	1	685	684	685	452	478	557	169	118
Medicine	7	7	7	7,070	7,058	6,755	7,070	7,058	6,755	1,740	1,620
Pharmacy	3	3	3	715	767	836	715	767	836	140	176
Philology [6]	5	6	3	7,066	6,022	6,494	4,938	4,409	5,095	942	942
Philosophy [7]	1	1	4	422	2,075	2,353	368	1,720	1,999	101	177
History, geology, geography [8]	1	1	1	510	663	783	419	499	559	65	77
Natural sciences-biology	3	3	3	2,558	2,861	3,304	1,778	2,206	2,562	483	277
Chemistry	3	3	3	1,038	1,606	1,787	1,038	1,606	1,787	204	187
Mathematics, physics	3	3	3	4,225	4,007	4,467	3,374	3,367	3,834	552	338
Education	8	43	60	2,945	5,774	10,726	2,647	5,126	8,493	345	156
Law	3	3	3	4,693	3,101	2,401	1,006	868	913	839	893
Economics	3	3	4	5,078	5,085	5,778	2,301	3,217	4,083	616	967
Physical culture and sports	1	1	1	564	744	920	366	519	649	144	119
Plastic and decorative arts	3	3	3	409	452	492	380	439	490	65	52
Theater and cinematographic arts	2	2	2	295	305	273	230	266	247	53	83
Music	4	5	5	725	973	1,211	665	866	1,021	84	118

[1] The number of evening-session students increased from 611 in 1959–60 to 1,178 in 1960–61 and 2,040 in 1961–62; the number of correspondence-course students declined from 16,594 in 1959–60 to 14,402 in 1960–61 and to 13,371 in 1961–62.

[2] No graduation figures are available for 1961–62.

[3] Since 1955–56 including "Telecommunications."

[4] During 1956–57 and 1958–59 it belonged to Forestry.

[5] Since 1955–56, "Telecommunications" has been part of the Faculty of Electronics.

[6] From 1954–55 to 1959–60 it was known as "Philology-History."

[7] Since 1960–61 known as "History, Philosophy."

[8] Since 1954–55 known as "Geology, Geography."

SOURCE OF DATA: Based on table 193 of *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1962.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1962. p 396–401.

Table V.—Number of students in day and evening sessions and correspondence courses of higher education institutions, by field and university year: 1961–62

[— indicates no sixth year in the course]

Field	Total	University Year					
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Total	**83,749**	**26,510**	**21,544**	**13,706**	**9,253**	**9,911**	**2,825**
Mining	884	446	242	64	44	69	19
Mining electrotechnology	329	120	86	39	38	42	4
Geology	408	172	133	35	34	34	—
Crude oil and gas exploitation	506	113	157	57	59	79	41
Technology and chemical transformation of oil and gas	361	106	95	52	55	52	1
Oil machinery and equipment	394	141	107	46	47	53	—
Electrotechnology	2,549	1,072	856	230	149	189	53
Energetics	912	372	245	104	79	108	4
Electronics and telecommunications	1,189	547	286	155	104	75	22
Mechanics	4,753	1,748	1,389	591	437	505	83
Technology of machine building	1,245	540	359	129	107	79	31
Metallurgy	753	353	217	66	38	63	16
Technical economics	30	0	0	0	0	0	30
Transportation	936	184	236	186	110	185	35
Industrial chemistry	2,550	873	791	330	222	293	41
Light industry	530	171	125	92	53	57	32
Fishing and food technology	989	335	269	162	116	89	18
Lumber industry	621	213	239	45	48	71	5
Civil, industrial and agricultural constructions	3,264	1,114	1,004	338	383	331	94
Installations and equipment	1,227	378	426	131	100	148	44
Hydrotechnology	260	98	58	31	42	30	1
Railway, road, and bridge constructions	796	191	220	112	129	125	19
Architecture and urban planning	706	215	149	79	71	89	103
Agriculture and zootechnology	5,580	1,564	1,289	968	683	550	526
Horticulture	376	64	93	79	34	47	59
Mechanization of agriculture	907	258	221	127	87	95	119
Land improvement and organization of farm territory	568	207	130	102	68	61	—
Veterinary medicine	861	270	159	95	117	94	126
Forestry	685	233	181	77	84	106	4
Medicine	5,842	1,283	1,325	865	514	776	1,079
Dentistry	913	267	212	160	83	93	98
Pharmacy	836	274	196	188	70	108	—
History	445	109	106	105	65	60	—
History, philosophy	1,446	282	343	283	237	301	—
Philosophy	462	92	106	85	89	90	—
Philology	6,494	1,422	1,615	1,353	1,059	1,012	33
Geology, geography	783	214	199	151	120	99	—
Natural sciences	1,206	245	364	330	114	135	18
Natural sciences, geography	2,098	499	549	478	268	304	—
Chemistry	1,787	471	429	332	282	273	—
Mathematics, physics	4,467	999	988	1,248	646	586	—
Education	10,726	5,568	3,107	1,428	321	302	—
Law	2,401	345	269	389	657	741	—
General economics [1]	1,767	415	178	617	197	360	—
Finance, credit, and accounting	2,716	640	618	481	493	484	—
Commerce	1,295	438	328	186	159	184	—
Physical culture and sports	920	300	358	175	65	22	—
Plastic arts	204	62	39	29	24	24	26
Decorative arts	85	0	16	16	17	24	12
Plastic and decorative arts	203	31	48	36	28	39	21
Theater	273	76	70	60	47	20	—
Instruments and singing	613	167	136	117	93	100	—
Composition, conducting, and education	598	213	183	72	67	55	8

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[1] Includes a section on planning and statistics.

SOURCE OF DATA: *Anuarul statistic al R.P.R. 1962.* Bucharest: Direcţia centrală de statistică, 1962. p. 402–03.

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55. MINISTERUL JUSTIŢIEI. *Colecţie de legi, decrete hotărîri şi dispoziţii* (Collection of Laws, Decrees, Decisions, and Orders).

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58. *Învăţămîntul Profesional şi Tehnic* (Vocational and Technical Education). Bucharest.
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59. *Revista de Pedagogie* (Review of Pedagogy). Bucharest.
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60. *Revista Învăţămîntului Superior* (Review of Higher Education). Bucharest.
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63. *Scînteia Tineretului* (The Spark of Youth). Bucharest.
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[1] The U.S. Office of Education also has an English translation of *Decision No. 1434/1956* on the Completion and Reissuing of *Decision No. 91/1955* of the Central Committee of the Rumanian Workers' Party and of the Council of Ministers of the Rumanian People's Republic Relating to the Organization of the Vocational Schools for Apprentices, of the Technical Schools, and of the Technical Schools for Master Craftsmen.

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